

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE President's order forbidding the participation of office-holders in the management of party conventions, caucuses, and committees is, after the rout of the carpet-baggers at the South, the best thing he has yet done for politics. It will force a large number of "workers" to abandon fields of activity which are doubtless far more agreeable than their duty to the Government, and they will probably ask in a bewildered way, How is the party to be carried on? who is to see to the organization, raise the money, post the bills and get up the meetings, print the ballots, and so on? To which the proper answer is another question: Who carries on the Democratic party in States in which the Republicans have all the offices? Have you heard of their losing any elections through want of "workers" or funds or bills or meetings or speakers or ballots? Mr. Key's observation to the special agent who wished to devote himself solely to the business of "building up an Administration party in the district," that when a Government officer has time to devote to the building up of the party it shows that he is a supernumerary and may be dispensed with, goes to the root of the whole trouble. Officers who have time to run the party besides attending to their official duties are too expensive a luxury for a heavily-taxed people. Their number may be cut down one-half and the remainder confined to their desks. The present practice would be bad enough if the tax-payers were all of one party; it is doubly bad when men whose time is half paid for by Democrats devote a large part of it to running the Republican "machine."

While we have no desire to underrate the letter of the Secretary of the Treasury, in which he gives the Syndicate the assurance of the Cabinet that the new bonds will be paid in gold, it is right to call attention to the fact that Western silver men deny that this assurance has any value—the Cincinnati *Commercial* and Chicago *Tribune* already denounce it—and declare that, the bonds being issued under the law of 1870, they are payable in silver, and if Congress repeals the act of 1873, and remonetizes silver, they *must* be paid in silver. In fact, if this is done, the old greenback cry, "Money that's good enough for the people is good enough for the bondholders," will be raised with irresistible force, and our only defence against the swindle will be the President's veto, which may not be effective. We call attention to these things with the view of showing the extreme danger of dallying at Washington with the silver movement, and of seeming or professing to favor it with the view of influencing the Ohio election. "Talking silver" for that purpose may result in raising the devil. If the election is carried on silver grounds with the countenance of the Administration, it is impossible to say in what frame of mind on this subject Congress may meet in the fall, and whether the President will be able to afford the slightest protection to the bondholders. The true course for the Executive to take in the matter is to let the Ohio election alone, to let "harmony" alone, and let everything alone but honesty, and do in the silver business, as in all businesses, not the easy but the just and fair thing; for "he serves his party best who serves his country best."

The Democratic State Convention in Ohio meets on the 25th of July; the Republican on the 1st of August. The State press on both sides, and especially on the Republican side, agrees that the currency will be the main feature in the canvass, and the probabilities are that the main difference between the two parties will be that while the Republicans will demand a full silver legal tender for all debts public and private, the Democrats will demand plenty

of greenbacks with silver thrown in. In fact, it will be a sort of scrub race in the direction of a depreciation in the currency. To use the words of the soberest of the Ohio papers, the Cincinnati *Gazette*, the Democrats will declare for "both the greenback dollar and the silver dollar, and plenty of both," while it describes the chief element of the Republican position as the notion of a cheap silver dollar for payment of public and private debts.

"This notion got a start and great momentum from the apparent showing that it was cheaper than the greenback dollar. The promise of a specie dollar for payment of the bondholder and of all the 'creditor class,' cheaper than payment in legal-tender notes, was too captivating not to be received with great favor in this country, where every man is a financier and thinks that the way to pay debts is by fabricating currency."

It adds that it is understood that the President is for "cheap silver money" for everybody excepting the public creditor, but that it is expected that he will yet work up to the point of carrying out the will of the people by paying the bloated bondholders in this currency too; if he does not, the Democrats will make that an issue in the campaign. When one reads all this, and remembers how we shuddered last fall lest the Republicans might not get into power in order to save the public credit from the wretched Democrats, one feels as if the world were very hollow.

Georgia has, by a majority of about 9,000, voted to have a constitutional convention. The only consideration of general interest involved seems to have been the political color of the present constitution, which brands the people of the State as "rebels." This is very offensive to the pride of the Georgians, on whom the argument that altering the name does not alter the thing produces no sort of impression. The convention will meet next month, and will consider the expediency of biennial legislatures, and also probably the homestead exemption, which, in Georgia as in some other "debtor" States, is a privilege highly valued by all classes; it was partly the fear that this exemption would be diminished that caused the hostility to the call for a convention.

Despatches received at the War Department from General Ord show that the Mexican border difficulty is in a fair way of settlement. General Treviño, in command of the Mexican forces, has signified his desire to co-operate with the United States in clearing out the cattle-thieves and marauders who infest the line of the Rio Grande. Treviño is one of Diaz's generals, and the Rio Grande country is supposed to be a sort of retreat for the followers of unsuccessful Mexican pretenders, like the two unfortunate patriots referred to by some of the papers as "Don Lerdo de Tejada and Judge Iglesias." Therefore it is not an unnatural inference that Diaz is very willing to strengthen his government at the expense of his exiled rivals, and at the same time make capital with the United States by helping General Ord police the border. Of the necessity of a vigorous policy looking to this there can be no doubt. The report on the state of affairs on the Texas line made to Congress by the committee of which Mr. Schleicher was chairman, showed that nothing was needed to repress the raids from the Mexican side but the pursuit of thieves across the line. This we are now assured of, and there seems no reason why we should not look forward to as satisfactory a state of quiet and safety on the Rio Grande as existed there during the rebellion, when the trade carried on with Europe through Mexican ports brought in a large population, and with it a sufficient amount of civilization to make cattle-lifting out of the question. That this police duty assigned to General Ord will lead to an occupation of part of Mexico we see no reason for believing. The spirit of annexation has, with its chief cause—slavery—died out. Don Lerdo and Judge Iglesias are greatly disgusted with the present state of affairs, and insist upon it that there are no cattle-thieves on the Rio Grande at all, but that the country is a smiling paradise in which the emigrant only refrains

from settling from disgust at the manner in which Diaz made himself President of it.

The Attorney-General sent back Tweed's statement last week through his counsel, and informed him that he could not be released. Tweed thereupon directed his counsel to confess judgment in all the suits against him, under the impression apparently that this would pave the way to his liberation. The newspapers now almost unanimously insist that the Attorney-General shall explain his action in the Tweed case, and Tweed's counsel, Mr. Townsend, has taken advantage of the excitement to publish a long "statement," in the Beecher-Tilton manner, giving his version of the negotiations which ended in the return by Mr. Fairchild of the Tweed document. What Mr. Townsend accuses Mr. Fairchild of is bad faith in getting hold of Tweed's confession on a pledge of liberation. Not only, however, does he bring forward no documentary proof of this, but all the correspondence looks as if the confession had been merely put in Mr. Fairchild's hands on the understanding that its acceptance should be followed by Tweed's release. Antecedently, of course, it was highly improbable that any sensible lawyer would make pledges based on the "confession" of a hardened villain like Tweed before seeing it, and we do not see that Mr. Townsend makes out his case affirmatively at all. He brings a new and amusing character on the scene in the person of Mr. Carolan O'Brien Bryant, the author of the remarkable narrative of Tweed's escape and recapture published recently in *Harper's Weekly*, whom he wishes to make out a representative of the Attorney-General, but who evidently acted as a "mutual friend" of both sides, and, if the entire truth were told, would probably turn out to be a person whose native powers of imagination, when the interests of his "clients" and the liberty of the subject are at stake, are altogether beyond his control. Mr. Townsend, apparently, thinks it quite clear that the publication of Tweed's statement was fraudulently used to bring about the Sweeny compromise, but then the appearance of the outline of the confession in the *World*, coupled with certain other facts, looks much more as if Tweed's counsel were at the bottom of the whole thing.

Considered as a scandal simply, the history of the affair has been this: Tweed makes a confession on a general understanding that it is to be kept secret; the confession is immediately published, substantially in full, in a morning paper. Several persons implicated in the confession—one of them a leading Senator of the State—immediately demand a legislative investigation, though they know that the author of it need not testify. The Committee, knowing the same fact, summon Tweed to testify; Tweed, being relieved by the circumstances of his case from the necessity of testifying, immediately on being summoned before the Committee declines to testify. The Committee, having procured no evidence at all, exonerate the persons implicated. The newspapers immediately discuss the matter and come to the conclusion, without having any evidence: 1st, that what purports to be Tweed's confession is his confession; 2d, that this confession is true; 3d, that the persons implicated are rascals and perjurers. They thereupon proceed to take charge of the case and direct the movements of the Attorney-General (who has also, it may be noticed in passing, the assistance of some of the best counsel in the city), and order the immediate arrest of Sweeny, although there is no criminal charge against him, and the summary prosecution of all persons implicated in the putative confession of Tweed. The State now settles with Sweeny, and the settlement is denounced as preposterous, while Tweed's counsel publishes a long statement accusing the highest legal officer of the State of the basest professional malpractice. Meantime the public looks on innocently and wonders how it is all going to end. It ought to end in a rigid enquiry by some body competent to undertake such an investigation into the professional conduct of the case on both sides, and in somebody's lasting disgrace. The judges will not undertake such unpopular work, the Bar Association is quite impotent, and the result is that nothing is done. In the ab-

sence of any tribunal competent and willing to undertake the task, Mr. Fairchild has wisely decided not to go into newspaper wrangles with Mr. Townsend but to make a detailed report of the case to the Governor.

Mayor Ely's nominations have not hitherto been on as high a level as that reached by his predecessor, Mr. Wickham, though he has evidently been honestly trying to give the city good government as far as the "machine" will let him. The machine is, since the election last fall, stronger than ever, and Mr. John Kelly, whose notions about reform have been growing hazier and hazier ever since the movement headed by John Morrissey two years ago convinced him of the "barren idealism" of paying for the work of the city only the fair value of labor and materials, has now gone bodily over to the enemy, and is apparently determined to reduce the city once more to the condition in which it was just before the advent of Tweed. He has been having a fight with the Police Board, which, with General Smith at its head, is in a more efficient state than it has been for many years. On this he proposed to place a dependent of his own—one Purroy by name, an alderman of whose existence, we venture to say, not one man in fifty throughout the city was six months ago aware. Who Purroy is, where he comes from, whether he is lawyer, doctor, liquor-dealer, or minister of the Gospel, are matters of knowledge confined to a still smaller circle. Why he should be made a Police Commissioner no one has been able to explain. The mayor, however, has been firm on the subject, and Kelly has not much chance of carrying his point. But what an outrage it is that the time and attention of hard-working and faithful public servants should be taken up with such an intrigue! The Commissioners of Police, who ought to have the government on their side, backing them up in their war upon the classes that make perpetual war on society, have to spend a great part of their time defending themselves from conspiracies of this sort, in which the chief actor is usually some one more or less in control of the government itself. The thieves, murderers, burglars, and pickpockets have an effective ally just at present in the "Boss," whose undoubted purity of intention makes his obstinacy and ignorance a more formidable obstacle to reform than they would be if he were of the Tweed and Connolly stripe. Mr. Campbell, the Commissioner of Public Works, who is a "visionary" and a dreamer, has solved the problem of how to get the work of the city done at market rates by having everything in his department done by contract, and is in consequence the object of the extremest hate and disgust on the part of the "short-hairs." The triumph of Kelly in the present fight would, no doubt, be followed by Campbell's dismissal, and the appointment of some "practical" man in his place who would see to it that, whatever became of the city, the faithful voter should have his reward at the public crib.

The destruction of St. John and Marblehead by fire on'y swells the long list of conflagrations due to the absence of proper precautions, or rather to the presence of positive invitations of disaster. St. John was the centre of a great lumber trade, and was really what other places destroyed in the same way have turned out to be metaphorically—a lumber-yard. But it is not too much to say that a town situated on the sea, and with a supply of fresh water besides, can be absolutely protected, no matter what occupations are carried on in it, against fire. In Marblehead the authorities seem to have very nearly ensured the destruction of the town by placing the reservoir in the midst of some light, inflammable buildings, so that when these took fire there was no possibility of getting at the water.

If we except London, where there were fluctuations in consols to the extent of three-quarters of 1 per cent, the financial markets during the week were dull. The decline in consols was caused by apprehension that the establishment of a British protectorate in Egypt and the declared intention of Russia to occupy Constantinople, temporarily at least, would prolong the war and involve all the

great Powers. Here there was an advance in the price of gold to 105 $\frac{7}{8}$, chiefly because of the foreign news; later the price declined to 105 $\frac{1}{8}$, as the news improved, and also because of the beginning of heavy gold disbursements by the Treasury. The subscriptions to the new 4 per cent 40-year bonds of the United States have been moderate in amount, and the estimate of what the total result will be during the thirty days limited for popular subscription varies from \$5,000,000 upward. The discussion as to whether the bonds are payable either in gold or silver has not been silenced by the letter of the Secretary of the Treasury, and the doubts which hang over the 4 and 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent bonds apply also to the 5 and 6 per cents. The gold value of the 412 $\frac{1}{2}$ -grain silver dollar at the close of the week was \$0.9068; the gold value of the Treasury promise to pay one dollar (the United States legal-tender note) was \$0.9512. The reports from the crops during the week were encouraging. If the harvest should prove to be good, the outlook for the autumn and winter would be encouraging for the railroads as well as for general trade. The Treasury policy and the action of Congress would then be the only things to be watched by those who are on the lookout for what may disturb the money market and through it general trade.

In England rumors of dissensions in the Cabinet grow stronger, Lord Beaconsfield being supposed to be in favor of some positive demonstration, while Lords Salisbury and Derby hold firmly to the position of "passive neutrality" traced out by Mr. Cross in the debate on the Gladstone resolutions. There is also talk of the Government's asking Parliament for a heavy grant to be used for military purposes during the recess, but it will probably be no larger—we believe \$50,000,000—than the Gladstone Ministry asked for at the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War. The rumors about the despatch of 60,000 men to Gallipoli are probably the products of exaggerated stories about the money. No such force could seriously impede Russian progress, or, at all events, prevent her from shutting Abdul Hamid and the remnants of his pashas up in Constantinople. But it is not denied by the best observers that the mind of the British public is in a panicky condition, and that a great Turkish collapse in Asia or on the Danube might lead to some rash action. The Derby-Gortchakoff correspondence all points to peace and good will.

The British Government has taken very peremptory ground with regard to the Suez Canal. M. de Lesseps, who was alarmed by the probable effect of the war on its security, went over to London and submitted a plan to Lord Derby for the neutralization of the Canal by means of an international convention; but the latter, after consideration, declined to adopt it. Under it the various governments were to agree that all ships, both national and commercial, were to have free passage through it, subject to such measures as the Khedive might take to prevent the disembarkment of troops or munitions of war on Egyptian territory. Lord Derby put this aside, and in lieu of it informed both the Russian and Turkish Governments "that any attempt to blockade the Canal or interfere with its approaches would be regarded by her Majesty's Government as a menace to India, and as a grave injury to the commerce of the world," and would on both these grounds "be incompatible with the maintenance by England of an attitude of passive neutrality," and closed his note by saying "that her Majesty's Government was firmly determined not to permit the Canal to be made the scene of any combat or other warlike operations." With this M. de Lesseps was abundantly satisfied, and read the despatch at the annual meeting of the stockholders, who received it with cheers.

In so far as what is still known about the Russian movements on the Danube during the past week warrants any guess as to the future, the probability would seem to be that the force which has entered the Dobrudsha is intended to sweep up whatever Turks there may be in eastern Bulgaria and drive them into the fortresses, Silistria, Rustchuk, Shumla, and Varna, and keep them there while

the force which crosses higher up, say about Sistova, will be the field column which will strike for the Balkans and Constantinople by way of Sofia and Philippopolis, holding out the hand as it goes along to the malcontent Servians, Bosnians, and Montenegrins. Widin will probably be left in care of the Rumanians. No estimate worthy of attention which is now made puts down the Russian army engaged in these operations at less than double the available force of the Turks, even supposing Suleiman Pasha to drop the Montenegrins and come northward; and the disparity in organization and readiness for active operations is, of course, greater still. The news from Asia seems to indicate a success of some kind for Mukhtar Pasha, and derives some confirmation from a despatch from the London *Times* correspondent at Erzerum, but Mukhtar's news has to be received with extreme caution, and if the accounts previously given of the condition of his forces be even half true his victory must have been little short of miraculous. It may be useful to suggest that all accounts of victories on either side in which, like that which Dervish Pasha says he won at Batum, the victorious party after giving the enemy a severe thrashing "returns to its former position," should be received with great distrust. There appears to be no doubt of a Russian success at Zeidekan, near Toprak-Kaleh.

The popular impression that the Dobrudsha is a pestilential region, and that the Russian army in operating there is likely to be swept away by some kind of fever, has really no basis in fact. The marshy district within a few miles of the river is, indeed, open to this charge there, as it is all along the banks up to Servia; but the steppe known as the Dobrudsha proper, which begins about thirty miles south of Matchin, at which the Russian 14th Corps has passed, and extends down to Trajan's wall, or a line from the Karassu to Kustendzhe, is no more unhealthy than the rest of the country. It is a desert, owing mainly to the want of water, and therefore a difficult country for troops to move in, and the English cavalry brigade which was sent up there in 1854 to reconnoitre came back in a bad plight; and General Espinasse's division of Frenchmen were almost swept away in it, but it was by cholera, which may attack troops anywhere. In moving down it the Russians will be exposed to the ordinary difficulties of a march through a waste and waterless region, but no others, and they will have their right flank protected by the river.

The French Senate has agreed to the dissolution of the Lower Chamber by a majority of 149 to 139, as was, indeed, expected from the beginning, and the Chamber has been declared dissolved accordingly, and the elections are to take place in three months. The preparations of the Ministry for it continue to be of an extraordinary character. The cafés have been warned not to allow political discussions to be held in them, on pain of being closed by the police; official enquiries have been made as to the political opinions of the rectors, inspectors, and professors of the university, probably as a warning to them. The prefects have been instructed to prevent the sending up of petitions to a particular party in either of the Chambers, and the changes in the prefects and sub-prefects still go on. The President of the Municipal Council of Paris has been tried and sentenced to fifteen months' imprisonment and a heavy fine for an attack—certainly a violent and indecent one—in a political speech. Moreover, as no meeting can be held anywhere without the permission of the Minister of the Interior, unless the audience has been summoned by an invitation addressed to each person separately, and as this permission is of course sternly refused, the Republicans have very up-hill work before them in the conduct of their canvass, but they are apparently none the less confident of success. Addresses from manufacturers and commercial bodies in various parts of the country continue to pour in on the Marshal, calling his attention to the deplorable effect on trade of the recent events.

THE HOPES OF THE OFFICE-HOLDERS.

ONE of the most credible political rumors of the day is that the eyes of all the discontented and disappointed machinists of the Republican party are turning rapidly to General Grant as the candidate whom it will be best for them to put forward in 1880, the one who is most likely to restore their fallen fortunes, and, indeed, the only one with whom the party is likely to have much chance of success. They argue, and with considerable force, that even under ordinary circumstances the faults of his Administration would be forgotten during the coming four years of private life and foreign travel; that this is rendered doubly probable by the magnificent reception which he has met with in England, and which proves that he is what his "Administration Circles" always said he was, the greatest living American—the man who, after all, reflects most honor on the country and has done most for its safety and welfare; that, whatever objections there may be to three terms in succession, there can be none to three terms with intervals between, and that in any event it is not likely that any other man can be found in the Republican ranks who will command so many votes, or offer the Democratic candidate, who will come next time with the solid South, Returning Boards and all at his back, so formidable an opposition.

That hopes and expectations of this sort will grow during the next three years we have no doubt, and we feel quite sure that General Grant is not the man to discourage them. He will come back from Europe with greatly increased contempt for his critics and detractors, and will receive an enthusiastic welcome from thousands who were somewhat cowed by the scandals of the later years of his administration. He is still young and vigorous, and has not, we may be sure, in spite of the modesty of his last message, had his confidence in his own powers in any degree diminished since he left office. That all the office-holders whom Hayes's changes have made uncomfortable—including even the happy band who slept during their working hours on the shelf put up for their accommodation in the Engraving Bureau—will be cheered by the prospect of his restoration to power, even though it be a remote one, and that the mere talk of it will do much to give Mr. Hayes's reforms and rules an ephemeral or fancy air, we suppose few of those who have any knowledge of the office-holding mind will doubt.

It is for this reason we mention the matter, and not because we really believe there is any likelihood of our seeing the "Old Man," surrounded by his old friends, installed again in the White House. But the expectation of *something* of this kind—the expectation that "the practical men," the Chandlers, Mortons, and Conklings, who have been so grossly deceived in Hayes, will be able to do something to get them out of the present muddle—will certainly linger for at least one Presidential term in the average office-holder's or politician's mind, and will prevent his reconciling himself thoroughly with the new régime or showing any zeal in making it a success, or, in fact, openly identifying himself with it or becoming responsible for it. He will feel until at least after another election that the king is coming back again, to sweep away the new fangled notions, put up the shelf again in the Engraving Bureau, and employ the special agents of the Post-Office not in the humble work of detecting thefts and frauds, but the grander one of "building up an Administration party" in the district. Nor must we blame him too severely for this scepticism. There can be little doubt that with by far the larger number of the office-holders and politicians—and these may be considered convertible terms—it is perfectly honest. We are in the habit of attaching a good deal of importance, as one of the difficulties in the way of a return to specie payments, to the fact that a generation has come on the stage since the war which knows nothing by experience of convertible paper, and looks on inconvertible paper as one of the ultimate facts of finance. In discussing the prospects of civil-service reform, the fact that few men now in political life have had any experience of any kind of civil service but the one now in existence is also of great importance. They nearly all look on the present mode of tenure and appointment as one of the

essential features of republican government, and the proposed reform as simply a foreign or monarchical fancy and sentimental gimerack which cannot be made to work, and which if tried will surely have to be abandoned. The notion that the administration of government is "business," like commercial business, is to them a novel, foolish notion, and the man who said that Mr. Jewell was trying to "run the Post-office like a factory" really meant to illustrate in the strongest possible way Mr. Jewell's absurdity and unfitness for his place. When we remember that this complete intellectual, and we may add moral, perversion has occurred in forty years in an active commercial community, and under the eyes of a restless press which discusses everything to exhaustion, we may cease to wonder at the strong hold which divers senseless customs and abuses have secured on the popular mind in older and more ignorant and phlegmatic countries. The truth is that among us the civil service as Grant worked it has assumed the air of a precious part of our political system in the eyes of a large body of our public men, and they are totally opposed to change, and their following in the lower walks of politics know they are, and will not for a good while give up the hope of seeing them effectually resist it.

It is this which makes it of so much importance that the President's reform, whatever else it may be, should be, to use his own language, "thorough, radical, and complete." If he is pursuing, as some people now say he is, and as some of his appointments seem to indicate, "a compromise policy"—that is, a policy in which there is enough reform to keep the reformers hopeful, and not enough to dishearten or irritate the anti-reformers—he may rest assured that if he has the cause of reform really at heart, as we believe he has, his ultimate defeat is certain. Every concession he makes for the sake of "harmony" to the friends of the old régime keeps alive the belief in the office-holding ranks that the reform, so far as it goes, is, after all, only temporary, and that if they go into it too eagerly or pay too much attention to the order to abstain from politics, they may find themselves, when the experiment is over, exposed to the fate of deserters who have not been protected by the capitulation. Their interest, as well as their prejudices, will therefore be enlisted against the change, and they will see in what they will consider the President's practice of the two conflicting systems a sure sign that even he himself has not faith in his own programme, and they will try to take care of their future by getting through his term of office with as little reform as will save them from censure or dismissal.

The fact is, however, that the evil with which Mr. Hayes has promised to deal has gone too deep, and threatens the form and even the existence of the Government too gravely, to be got rid of by half-way measures. It was introduced by a man of iron will and revolutionary temper, and it will have to be squelched by a man of equal courage and loftier character. It has not only corrupted the administration of the Government, but it has depraved the morals of nearly everybody who has anything to do with politics. It cannot, therefore, be cured by putting on a patch here and a patch there, or by being "practical" one day with the practical men, and enthusiastic and hopeful the next day with the reformers. The man who carries it out must not only be in earnest himself, but everything he says or does must make the whole army of adventurers who, to use Mr. Lowell's words, have converted public office into "a tramps' boosing-ken," believe that he is in earnest, and that when his successor comes into power he will find the affairs of the American people administered, as nearly as they can be in an establishment so recently reorganized and purged, as prudent merchants carry on their own private affairs, by honest men, paid for doing one thing well and treated as if what the pulpits say about the value of character were really true. The President's recent order commanding abstinence from all participation in the machine is a most important contribution to the good work—the most important that has yet been made; but it must be enforced persistently to be efficacious, for there is no question that it will be evaded by all the means at the disposal of a body of men who are

skilled in nothing so much as in the arts of intrigue and subterfuge.

A DEAD ISSUE.

THE continued discussion of the President's so-called Southern policy must be taken as an index rather of the importance of the Southern question to the Republican party as a party than of any vitality in the subject itself. When one sees day after day, as in the *Times* of this city, for example, the parade of evidence of Southern violence and lawlessness, both political and non-political, as a stigma on the Administration and a proof of Mr. Hayes's fatal mistake, one rubs his eyes with wonder at such fatuity on the part of editors and such patience on the part of their readers. This would certainly be the feeling of any intelligent foreigner who had mastered the history of reconstruction, or who even appreciated the motives by which Mr. Hayes was governed in withdrawing the troops from South Carolina and Louisiana. More irrelevant and fruitless criticism has, in fact, seldom been tolerated in the press, and if any one insists upon its sincerity he pays the poorest possible compliment to the reasoning faculties of our party journalists.

Less than six months have elapsed since President Grant practically anticipated Mr. Hayes's course by establishing a *status quo* in the two States in which the moral support of the Federal troops was indispensable to the success of the Republican faction. Less than three months ago the troops were withdrawn by the new President, and the Packard and Chamberlain Governments tumbled to pieces of their own weakness. This weakness was notorious; the President's constitutional scruples about military interference in the affairs of a State were equally well known. The appointment of a commission for Louisiana, the summoning of Hampton and Chamberlain to Washington, gave ample time for popular discussion and for acquiring clear ideas, not simply as to the results of the President's proposed action, but as to the reasons on which it was actually based. After all this, and in spite of it all, we must now listen to condemnation of him as if something had resulted that had not been foreseen by him, or, if it had been foreseen, would have altered his views of duty. We have heard a great deal about the short memory of the American people, but we do not believe it has already forgotten so grave and instructive a chapter in its history, or that this iteration of the partisan press about the barbarous condition of Southern society, does more than gratify a sentimental regret that the war, besides abolishing slavery, did not also make clean work of all other Southern evils.

It is almost humiliating to recall attention to the fact that President Hayes never proposed to put down the carrying of concealed weapons at the South, or to suppress duelling or assassination or family feuds like the Chisolm-Gully rencounter. He never professed indifference to the safety of human life or the protection of civil and political rights south of Mason and Dixon's line, but they were considerations which yielded to those involving the relation of the Federal Government to the States, the extent of its power to intermeddle, its responsibility for anything but the execution of Federal laws. He had hopes, which have been signally justified, that the two distracted Southern States which he sought to pacify would, if allowed to settle their affairs in their own way, exhibit greater tranquillity than ever before, and greater respect for persons and property. These hopes might have been disappointed, and every case of disorder and bloodshed that has since arisen might be directly traceable to his conduct, and still the question of his wisdom or his conformity to the law of the land would remain untouched. In reality, however, no attempt has been made to connect the outrages to which we are treated so freely with the removal of the troops; and we are as confidently asked to censure Mr. Hayes for what goes wrong in Georgia or in Mississippi as in South Carolina or Louisiana—the only States for whose good behavior he can in any way be held responsible. This alone would suffice to prove the disingenuousness of such criticism. But it is constantly assumed that an opposite course would have led to very different results, as

if people did not remember under what régime all but three of the reconstructed States had reverted to white control before Mr. Hayes was nominated; and as if the last political legacy of General Grant was not a confession of the futility of trying to save the remaining three by the means heretofore employed with his sanction and under his direction.

We cannot help thinking that a large part of the confusion on this subject that doubtless does exist in many minds, and is sedulously fostered by the hostile press, is due to the use of the term "policy." Now, properly speaking, Mr. Hayes had no policy in doing what he did. No doubt the pacification of South Carolina and Louisiana was part and parcel of his desire to see the South redeemed from the misery of carpet-bag rule, but that desire did not dictate what step he should take. He found, as we have said, a *status quo* established by Grant as provisional, and one which it was well understood could not endure; the question before him then was, not, What is my policy to be? but, Shall I adopt the policy of my predecessor? This was a constitutional question, the solving of which marked the termination of a policy which had been tried and found wanting, but was in no sense itself a policy. It was an *act*, with no necessary relation to any that might follow, or to any that had preceded except as a negative and a veto. It did not even cover the whole question of Federal interference, nor can any one deduce from it the limits which Mr. Hayes would observe in all cases. The distinction seems worth enforcing, since a "policy" is probably in the minds of many people synonymous with "hypothesis," and is regarded as something that may and ought to be discarded whenever it can be shown not to fit the facts. But Mr. Hayes's action, call it what you will, cannot be revoked, and this the party press knows perfectly well. It knows that in the only case in which President Grant sought to turn back the revolution at the South—that of Arkansas, namely—the attempt was quietly set aside as preposterous; and the same fate attended Mr. Boutwell's solemn proposal to throw Mississippi, which had fairly settled down upon its base, upon its apex once more. By virtue of what has since happened, Louisiana is just as secure against interference as either of these States or as Virginia, and offers no more excuse than they for reviving it. If there is to be any retrogression, therefore, we must deal with the South as a unit, as we did after the war.

What, then, is the motive for all this empty carping over what is now as much a part of the Constitution as the Fifteenth Amendment? Clearly it is the hope of keeping together a constituency for politicians like Blaine, whose occupation is threatened more by the President's civil-service policy than by his Southern "policy." The greatest service that can be rendered them is to conceal the real nature of their wounds; to represent their opposition to the Administration as lofty fidelity to the grand idea of the Republican party—the equal brotherhood of man—whereas it is a life-and-death struggle to avoid being reformed out of public life. At a moment, too, when the humbler "workers" stand aghast at the Executive order which fastens them to their desks and stools, what could be more discouraging than a lull in the party press on the subject of Southern outrages—a sort of perishable capital that needs to be kept up all the time and not allowed to fall into disuse? To inspire them with the belief that they are only temporarily under a cloud, that if they are patient and even silent under civil-service reform the grand charge of the disaffected on the President's Southern policy may yet avail to bring back the old order of things, is a task worthy of partisan journalism. More directly, there may be a well-grounded expectation that if the disorderly condition of the South can be kept well in view for the next few months, the vacant places in a nicely-balanced Senate can be secured for Republicans of the anti-Hayes stripe. Be this as it may, the opportunity for this truly senseless fault-finding is rapidly passing away, and it will in time be looked upon as on a par with the Democratic pretext for not supporting the Administration, because it is meanly getting the credit of doing what Mr. Tilden was going to do.

THE HILTON-SELIGMAN CONTROVERSY.

THE great event of the week, far surpassing, if we may judge from the amount of space given it by the newspapers, all others in importance, has been the controversy arising out of the refusal of Mr. Henry Hilton as trustee of A. T. Stewart's estate to admit Mr. Seligman, a Jewish banker, to the Grand Union Hotel in Saratoga. Mr. Hilton's reason is that he thinks the presence of Jews in a hotel in large numbers keeps well-bred and well-to-do Christians away, and thus injures its business. But the only hotel Mr. Hilton controls is the Grand Union at Saratoga; and his influence on the legislation of the country, or on the attitude of the American people on race questions, is admitted on all hands to be very small. So that the sudden revelation of the fact that he disliked Jews could hardly have been expected to produce the phenomena of a great social convulsion. And yet it did. For several days, according to the newspapers, it filled this great city with the most painful forebodings, and the emotions of New-Yorkers, as usual, diffused themselves by telegraph to the remotest corners of the country. It then appeared that Hilton's act was not the exclusion of a few rich Jews from the Grand Union Hotel during two months of summer, but, according to one paper, "a blow struck at the foundation-stone on which the State Government and the Federal compact rests." The writer added, however, apparently to quiet the natural alarm of his readers, "that the blow was puny, ineffectual, and, withal, contemptible." According to another observer, "it seemed like a return to the sentiments of the Middle Ages," and, by way of explaining this somewhat mysterious assertion, he alleged "that the mediæval idea of a banking institution was a wealthy Hebrew on a gridiron." Still another thought it raised the question whether the Jewish race "had no rights under the Constitution." A great many threatened Hilton with the Fourteenth Amendment and the Civil Rights Act. One paper declared that Hilton's spirit was "the bigoted and heathen spirit of the dark ages." The reporters hunted down all the prominent Jews in this city to see what they thought of Hilton's conduct, and, singular as it may seem, they all disapproved of it. On examining the Christians in Wall Street, in the hotels, at the barbers' shops, and at the Produce Exchange, it was found that though the weight of opinion ran against Hilton, there were Americans base enough to chuckle over the matter, and others of a still lower grade who declined to express any opinion on it. Hilton himself seems to have been visited frequently during each day with the view of ascertaining how he felt in trying to bring back the Dark Ages, and he invariably said that he felt happy in the consciousness that he was discharging a solemn duty, and was always able to show "letters and telegrams from all parts of the country" thanking him for the noble stand he was making.

Seligman seems all this time to have been ensconced at the Clarendon Hotel at Saratoga, composing cutting letters to Hilton, watching the number of entries in the Grand Union register, and organizing a grand Pan-Hebrew movement for the withdrawal of Jewish custom from Hilton's Tenth Street dry-goods store. Hilton maintains that they can't damage him in this way, and Seligman that Jewish accounts are the very foundation of Hilton's inflated and tottering concern. Many of the letters in the newspapers, called out by the affair, have been among the noblest contributions to the cause of civil and religious liberty which it has ever been our lot to peruse. One feels in looking through them that as long as the spirit of the writers reigns in even a few American bosoms Hilton will find that there is a point at which his hellish designs will be resisted, if need be by force. His attempt has many of the darker features of the famous nose-pulling case in Boston some years ago. That, on the surface, was a quarrel in a railroad car about a seat, in which one disputant tweaked his antagonist's nose. In reality, as we learned from the Boston press, it was an attempt to "establish caste in America," and had its origin some thirty years previous in the pro-slavery leanings of the Boston Whigs, and was closely connected with the return of Anthony Burns, and had been not by any means obscurely alluded to by one of the Biblical prophets—we forget now the precise passage. The committal of the nose-puller to jail for a month was therefore hailed as a great triumph of equality before the law, and a great vindication of the principle that the noses of all, not of a few only, not of the well-born or rich or educated simply, are sacred in America.

The cold, cynical, oligarchical view of Hilton's conduct is this, and we present it simply as a curiosity. Judge Hilton is a man who has become accidentally, as it were, the controller of great wealth and of a large business. On matters which his wealth and business can affect, his opinion is of considerable weight; on other matters, we believe we may say, it has

no weight whatever. Nobody certainly would refer a question of manners, or taste, or politics, or science, or political economy, or finance to his final decision. He has no power whatever to change or modify either the legal or social position of the Jews or any other race in this community. To restore the sentiments of the "Middle Ages" with regard to them, or establish any general change in their relations to their fellow-men, is apparently something which he cannot accomplish. But summer hotels are to all intents and purposes clubs. They are not inns, in which travellers find rest and food; they are resorts to which people go at a certain season of the year for health and recreation, and they cannot possibly serve this purpose to anybody to whom the rest of the company is on any ground objectionable. The keeper of a hotel of this kind is, therefore, quite as much justified in deciding what kind of guests he will attract as a club in selecting its own members. In fixing his price he decides that he will exclude persons who do not possess a certain amount of means; in banishing liquors and wines he decides that he will exclude wine-drinkers; but he may go further and decide that he will not receive persons of a certain color or nationality, or creed or race, or will discourage their coming if he means to cultivate customers to whom such persons are objectionable. We all have tastes about persons as well as about things, and we gratify them in choosing our company in our own homes; what wrong is there in getting a hotel-keeper to do it for us in the summer? Where would be the guilt of keeping a hotel for the benefit of Catholics at which Protestants got the cold shoulder? or an Evangelical hotel at which only religious people were welcomed? Exclusiveness of some kind is in fact one of the conditions of all social enjoyment which does not consist simply in public picnics with fifty-cent tickets. There are, of course, various ways of keeping away unwelcome people—skilful and dexterous ways, and coarse and brutal ones. Of the latter everybody has a right to complain; of the former nobody.

We have not touched here on the central point in this great controversy. Are the Jews as such disagreeable socially to right-minded Christians? The proper answer to this, we take it, is that Jews, like Christians, differ in social attractiveness, but that, owing to circumstances which cannot be described fully within our present limits, among the well-to-do Jews there is probably a larger proportion of persons who are offensive through "loudness" of dress and manners, and through bluntness of the social perceptions and absence of dignity and refinement, than among Christians. The Jews are one of the greatest races in the world, and have won the highest distinction even in those walks which call for that delicacy of perception which give manners their finish; but they have been placed for two thousand years in every Christian country in a position in which they were not called on for proficiency in the art of being at ease among one's equals, which is, after all, the essential condition of social success, and have had during most of that period no source of pleasure, safety, or distinction but money. It is only within the present century that they have really made their appearance in Christian society, and they have entered it with the drawbacks that might be expected from their history—that is, with an inordinate estimate of what may be done by "push," and with an inordinate reliance on the social power of wealth without the steadying support of strong social traditions. The tendency to gaudiness in dress or ornament we suspect has its roots deeper than modern history goes, and testifies to the purity of the race and the freshness with which its eye still retains the Oriental passion for brilliancy of costume, though the effect in our climate and with our tailoring is barbaric and coarse, instead of being, as under other conditions it would be, picturesque.

Correspondence.

PARTY APPOINTMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Hayes may honestly desire to reform the civil service, and may be honestly working with that end in view. That signifies nothing. It is not what the President secretly desires or what he publicly says he desires that is important, but rather what he is actually doing.

Since the days of Jackson the civil service has been used as a political engine, and practically it is being so used and so regarded by Mr. Hayes. When he came into office he found every Government position filled by a Republican party politician, and there is no present prospect of his leaving it in a different condition. It is true that he placed a Southern Democrat in the Cabinet, and that that Cabinet officer has announced that, in case he is unable to find among all Mr. Hayes's party adherents in any Southern State a person fit to hold office, he will appoint a Democrat. We are not

informed whether or not under this rule there will be any necessity for appointing a considerable number of Democrats. From the fact that the assorting has gone on until selections are being made from the notorious Returning Boards, we might infer that the chances for Democrats in the future were reasonably good at the South.

There is no necessity for such a rule in the North. Here no Democrats apply to the President for office, and he applies to no Democrats to take office. This is all right and proper under the old system, which is the spoils system, but it will never reform the civil service. Unless Mr. Hayes leaves the service in the hands of persons entirely satisfactory politically to both parties, the *status in quo* will not be respected by his successor, if a Democrat. If we are to have a civil service the members of which shall attend to the public business and not to party politics, the head of the public service—the President himself—must set the example, and make his appointments with the public and not party interests in view. And especially must this be done by Mr. Hayes, who has before him the difficult task of overthrowing one system and inaugurating a new one.

In my opinion, there is only one way to inaugurate this reform. Let the political cards be shuffled anew, fairly cut, and honestly dealt out, and no turning Jack from the bottom of the pack (persons not understanding the above are referred to ex-United States Minister Schenck's book on poker). Let the offices be honestly and fairly divided between the Republicans and Democrats, and then prohibit office-holders from meddling in politics.

If Mr. Hayes should leave the offices filled by men of both parties, but not politicians—business men who were conducting the public business upon business principles, under the rules of the service prohibiting them from having anything whatever to do with running a political campaign, be it local, State, or national—in my opinion we should be fairly started on the road to reform, and Mr. Hayes would be entitled to the honor of having inaugurated it. I fail to see anything so far to indicate that the President will pursue such a policy. He is doing simply what just as able and honest Presidents, to say the least, have done before him—making an effort to appoint none but competent men to office and requiring them to perform their official duties; appointing, however, none but members of his own party. My dear sir, the end is not yet.

T.

EAST SAGINAW, June 19, 1877.

[We do not believe that the appointment of Democrats as such to offices is necessary to give President Hayes's reform such a hold on the public mind as would prevent a relapse on the part of his successor. The great bulk of the honest and industrious people on both sides who pay the taxes are not interested in having a "fair divide" of the offices, and the Democrats of this class will not expect him to make a clearance of Republican office-holders for any such purpose. But we have no doubt they expect, and rightly expect, that he will not use subordinate offices as rewards for political services, or in aid of party ends, or as refuges for broken-down Republicans, or retain in office as reformers persons who have made themselves notorious as promoters of abuses, and who were put there originally solely because it was supposed they would be dexterous and faithful in this sort of work. In so far as he does these things he makes it likely that he will leave behind him nothing that the next Administration will be afraid to touch. Nothing influenced the reform wing of the Republican party in voting for him so much as the belief that his civil-service policy would be "thorough and radical." All that those who were most hopeful about Tilden on this head looked for was that he would pursue what is called "a compromise policy"—that is, appoint enough "good men to office" to tickle or satisfy the simple-minded reformers, and at the same time enough old rascals to convince the politicians that "the millennium was still a long way off," for there is nothing a professional politician dreads so much as "the millennium."—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

OF maps of the seat of war there is no end. Westermann & Co. have sent us Petermann's "Special Map of Eastern Turkey," showing the region from the coast westward to the meridian of Nicopoli, with tinted indications of altitude. These and the noticeably numerous names of places

ensure the usefulness of the map sooner or later in the campaign.—From F. W. Christern we have the first French map that has reached us—M. Vivien de St. Martin's "Turkey in Europe," a neatly executed and prettily colored chart on a scale too small for following military operations in their minutest details. The transliteration is French—e.g., Bourgas for Petermann's Burgos, Feradjik for Feredschik, Salonique for Saloniki, etc.—The "Geographical Magazine" for June (John Wiley & Sons) has a rough map of the seat of war in Asia on a larger scale and more minute than any we have yet seen. Its chief use will be in supplying names of insignificant places that may acquire momentary distinction. For instance, Zeidekan, south-west of Toprak-Kaleh, the scene of the Turkish defeat of June 15, 16, will be found here, but not on Handtke. The spelling is anglicized with tolerable consistency. For excellent maps of the plains of Erzerum and Erzingan one should turn back to No. 20 of the Berlin Geographical Society's "Zeitschrift."—G. P. Putnam's Sons publish early in July Mr. John Habberton's "Other People's Children," which has already been brought out in England.—Henry Holt & Co. have published Turgeneff's "Virgin Soil" in English dress from the skilful hands of Mr. T. S. Perry.—Herr Auerbach's active press at Stuttgart, whose latest product was Bret Harte's "Thankful Blossom," has kept up with the serial issue of Mr. James's "American," and already the German version may be had in two neat volumes of the "Transatlantische Roman-Bibliothek." "Der Amerikaner: oder Marquis und Yankee" is the expanded title, by which a too fastidious taste might be unpleasantly reminded of the dime novel. Max Adeler's "Elbow-Room," freely adapted, makes the sixth volume of this collection, and to German readers will be known as "Münchhausen in Amerika."—The seventh annual report of the Trustees of the Metropolitan Museum of Art shows a satisfactory financial condition, extremely valuable acquisitions, and an appreciative public. The total number of visitors during the year has been nearly 94,000. It is hoped that the Castellani collection will be secured in addition to the Curium collection of General di Cesnola.—From the tenth annual report of the Peabody Institute, Baltimore, we learn that the catalogue of its library is nominally completed, but as it requires revision it may not get to press before next year.—Trübner & Co. have issued the first number (for June) of the *Biographical Magazine*. It strikes us as a good shilling's worth. Opening with an interesting account of the infancy of Thomas Carlyle (to be continued), it next gives equally interesting extracts from Bismarck's private letters, recently made public. Then follows a gushing notice of the adventurer Hobart Pasha; and the Khedive, Gortchakoff, and Madame Sand (chap. i.) occupy the remainder of the volume. In these days of cheap photographic processes it ought to be a matter of course that such a periodical as this should be accompanied with permanent likenesses of the subjects of the biography. A few woodcuts illustrate the article on Carlyle.

—*Scribner's* for July contains a translation, by Prof. H. H. Boyesen, of one of Turgeneff's shorter stories, called "The Nobleman of the Steppe." Turgeneff's sketches appear so continually in translations in periodicals that it is difficult to keep up with them; but this, we suppose, is one of the earlier stories, inasmuch as the author makes his appearance in person—returning in his *teluga* from the chase, with his servant Jermolai by his side. The characters are few in number, and the sketch is one of manners and customs quite as much as a story in the strict sense of the term. In Pantalei Tchertapkanoff we have a Russian noble, landless and friendless, living in barbarous and squalid isolation with his humble Jew companion, whom he had rescued from death at the hands of a Christian mob; his gypsy mistress, who breaks his heart by leaving him; his faithful horse, Makel-Adel; his dogs, his gun, and his destroying fire-water. If Tchertapkanoff is meant for a type, the qualities of the type are pride, cruelty, an uncontrolled temper, and unbridled appetites, combined, in a manner perhaps not uncommon in a member of his class, with some kindness of heart, benevolence, and a hatred of oppression and injustice. There is, as so frequently in Turgeneff's portraits, something attractive in the character, notwithstanding all its vices, combined with everything that is repulsive in the semi-barbarous life of which it is the product. An article on shooting with the long-bow proposes the reintroduction of this ancient weapon for sporting purposes, and any one who has not considered the subject carefully will be surprised to find how much may be said in favor of the immediate abandonment of the fowling-piece. The chief objection to the latter—its destructiveness—is, however, to all but single-minded devotees of pure sport, its great recommendation. "Richmond since the War" furnishes a topic for another illustrated article, as does also the "Last Indian Council on the Genesee," held in 1872, when the surviving representatives of the once famous league of the Six Nations met in their council-house to celebrate what was left of themselves. Such an event had not, it seems, taken

place in this region for more than half a century, and it is certainly to be hoped, in the interest of Indian romance, it will not again. When we have two gentlemen with names as little aboriginal as Nicholson H. Parker and George Jones put forward as the best that the Senecas can do, and the proceedings are terminated by the organization of a sort of outside meeting of pale-faces, with a chairman and secretary and "appropriate exercises," in which it was explained to Messrs. Nicholson H. Parker and George Jones who they and their ancestors were, it seems a pity that the old traditions should not be permitted to sleep in peace without any attempt at "wakes" of this kind. Miss Jane Stuart contributes some anecdotes of her father, Gilbert Stuart, most of which illustrate chiefly his eccentricity and his fondness for hoaxing people. The old story of his demonstrating on a blackboard the absurdity of regarding anything as a secret that three people know is told, and a prediction is cited that we have never seen mentioned before, but which has been amply verified since it was made. "Sir," Stuart is quoted as saying, "there are few artists in America now, but fifty years hence you will not be able to kick a dog-kennel but out will start a portrait-painter."

—The *Atlantic* for July contains the opening of a story by Mr. Aldrich, in which the scene is laid in New England, called "The Queen of Sheba," and a short story by Mr. Howells, "At the Sign of the Savage," which reads almost as if it were written for acting. The plot is simplicity itself, yet admits of complications which are often used on the stage with admirable effect in little *vaudeville*s that occupy themselves with the relations of husband and wife. Mr. Howells's humor, as has often been pointed out, is at its best when it brings out the eternal contrast between man and woman, as, for example, in the "Wedding Journey," a book which it is said has already done much good in convincing hardened offenders among women of the urgent necessity of their at least pretending to understand a joke, and of their recognizing the fact that men cannot be expected to conform in the conduct of life to even the best female standard. Its reformatory influence among men has been less, for Mr. Howells's light satire, though it seems to involve a knowledge of the peculiarities of both sexes, is still directed, as male satire has ever been, mainly against women. They must look for revenge to their own sex, and not to men.

—Mr. Curtis, from his "Easy-Chair" in the July *Harper*, takes sides with Miss Anna Dickinson against the critics. He does not, as she did, accuse them of conspiring to misrepresent her and drive her from the stage, but he thinks they "could probably not escape the feeling that the change [from the lyceum to the theatre] was a whim, and involuntarily they would be on the alert to see what they anticipated." Add to this "a little resentment on the part of her old admirers, and a curious distrust among her new audience," and Mr. Curtis seems justified in asserting that "the ordeal of a novice was never more severe than that of Miss Dickinson when she appeared on the stage." Now, for our part we believe that seldom has aspiring genius had a less severe ordeal than Miss Dickinson's, and that she had the good-will and best wishes of nine-tenths of her first audiences, critics included. We therefore think it a mistaken kindness even to suggest the contrary. The greatest enemy of any artist, whether half or full-fledged, is "genial" criticism; and if Miss Dickinson had not received so much of it in Boston, she would have been less incensed at adverse criticism here. Mr. Curtis convicts the critics of a number of fallacies, but he would, it seems to us, have employed his pen more usefully in exposing the fallacy which has probably prepared Miss Dickinson to view her critics as conspirators—we mean the inference, in her own mind, of success on the stage from success on the platform. It would have been a friendly service to remind her that the public is a poorer judge of oratory than of acting; that the homage which it pays to her sex at the lyceum or on the stump is more than half lost at the theatre, where women excite no curiosity as women; that people are more easily moved by real tears from a woman lecturer than by the mock pathos of an actress; that the range of feeling and demonstrativeness appropriate to the platform is vastly more restricted than what the stage demands, has far fewer shades, and is correspondingly less difficult of mastery; that one *stands* in lecturing and *moves* in acting; that a provincial and uncultivated accent may be fatal in an actor, but no detriment to a popular lecturer; that the individuality which marks and distinguishes the earnest preacher, lay or clerical, is antagonistic to a profession in which characters are assumed and individuality laid aside. All this and much more the "Easy Chair" might have said without incurring, as it does, the grave responsibility of urging Miss Dickinson to take courage and go on in her new career. To venture upon such advice one ought to have probable evidence that she has power to overcome her

defects; but this can hardly exist without a willingness to receive and profit by honest criticism, and, so far as the public can judge, Miss Dickinson has it not. What is worse, she has no criterion by which to recognize such criticism, nor does the "Easy-Chair" help her to one.

—The *Portfolio* for June (J. W. Bouton) has for illustrated articles the paper on Albert Dürer's predecessors and teachers, embellished with one of the excellent photogravures, and a notice of Spüer's "Peru," for which the original cuts have been borrowed. The number opens with a fine etching after Greuze. It is to be wished that Mr. Hamerton could undertake more of the criticism of the periodical at first hand. He is himself too cosmopolitan to have indited the stale and *sauvrenu* allusion to the immoral bosoms of Greuze's females; Greuze was of his time, and his eternal type—studied from Mlle. Babati, who became his wife—is treated with as much reverence and respect as the age was used to. The limits of the *Portfolio* articles are so restricted that in repeating Mr. Ruskin's hysterical complaint of the nudity of Greuze, the important question of Greuze's place as a master of familiar art has had to be too much neglected. In the matter of the Grosvenor Gallery, too, about the real significance of whose innovations the public feels great curiosity, Mr. Hamerton's trained opinion cannot be advantageously replaced by that of any lady, however accomplished.

—Mr. Frederick A. Bridgman, who received a medal at the current Salon for his painting of "The Burial of a Mummy," is a native of Brooklyn, and is not yet thirty years old. We understand that a picture of his has been bought for the collection of the Liverpool Academy. His instructor was Gérôme, who conducted the very beginnings of his career in painting, since he had been a simple engraver in the Banknote Company before his visit to France. The list of foreign artists who have received medals in Paris is not very long. Robert Wylie obtained one of the second class in 1872 for his "Breton Sorceress"; no American painter had previously got a medal of that value for a genre work. This artist did not long enjoy his distinction; he died in February last, aged about forty. Mr. Healy obtained one of the same degree for portraiture in 1855. Mr. May and Mr. Rossiter received third-class medals in 1855. Of well-known foreign artists, Orchardson got a medal of the third class in 1867, and Millais and Leighton, in 1855 and 1859, medals of the same grade as Mr. Wylie's.

—"To attempt," says the editor of the 'Annual Register for 1876' (London: Rivingtons), "a historical narrative of the doings of the various South American States from the scanty materials afforded by occasional despatches would be an almost impossible task." There is reason for thinking that too much of the Register is compiled in this way, and if not literally from the telegraphic despatches alone, at least at second hand. We have remarked this before in the case of the United States, and it again strikes us in reading the record of the Centennial Year in the present volume. What an Englishman really needs to know about this country is not what events made the most noise in any given year, but what of all that happened shed most light on the national character and were the most important factors in the problem of our immediate future. Now, any student who had thoroughly penetrated the spirit of our institutions would never have assigned to Mr. A. T. Stewart one twenty-fourth part of the space allotted to the affairs of the United States in 1876; nor would he, having to tell the story of Babcock, Belknap, and Schenck as illustrations of our debauched civil service, omit all mention of Postmaster Jewell's dismissal—an act from which we are still suffering—or of Blaine's railroad transactions, and the struggle to prevent their exposure from defeating his nomination for the Presidency. Coming to the election itself, the great event of the year, we should have expected to find in the Register some notice of the Republican face-about on the subject of the XXII^d Joint Rule; of the appointment of the Joint Committee on the Electoral Count; of the several phases of the dispute in South Carolina, Louisiana, and Florida; and of the President's irregular appointment of "watchers" in Louisiana. As connected with the financial honor of the nation, the Register should also have alluded to the persevering attempt on the part of the House to repeal the Resumption Act, and to its passage of the unjust Geneva Award Bill. To correct these defects of perspective would have required more words but not necessarily more space, if the editor had been willing to print solid, in smaller type, the long extracts which he gives from the President's message, etc. For the rest, the Register has its customary valuable features. Its "Remarkable Trials" include the famous Clifton communion case of Jenkins v. Cook, and among the "Public Documents and State Papers" we have the Andrassy Note, the Berlin Memorandum, and other preliminary passes of the Russo-Turkish encounter.

—The Tiber is a river of some size, two-thirds as long as the Hudson, and as capable of overflow as the Seine; it drains 7,000 square miles of territory. And yet, complains Mr. S. A. Smith, in his 'Tiber and its Tributaries,' few of the strangers at Rome pay it any attention; some suppose that it is fordable, one even imagined that Caesar, when Cassius leaped in to save him, was sinking in a stream which he might have jumped across. Mr. Smith would change all this, and has undertaken the rather hopeless task of diverting attention from the monuments, which are crowded with associations, to the river, which has very few. All that there are, however, he has recalled—the superstitions connected with it, the early navigation, the great inundations, and the zoölogy, which latter gives occasion for many quotations from the classics in regard to the favorite fishes of the Romans. One source of interest he repudiates—there are no works of art to be recovered from its bed: neither the golden candlestick from the Jewish temple, nor the statues said to have been thrown into it by Gregory the Great, nor the plate from which Leo X. had dined, cast into the river that it might never be applied to baser uses. All these stories are shown to be extremely improbable. Considerable space is given to the method of preventing the disastrous inundations. Some engineers would embank the river, the result of which would be simply to raise its bed till it would run above the country like a canal, as the Po does, and would burst its banks from time to time with far more destructive effect than now, as the Po does; others would dredge the bed of the river, which, as there is hardly any fall between Rome and the sea, would have almost no effect. Mr. Smith thinks that the best that can be done is to endure the inundations, rejoice at the fertile soil which they leave behind them, and, by careful observations of the rain-fall and the rise of the upper part of the stream, to give warning to the Roman populace in time for the removal of perishable goods from danger.

—The collected works of Hood contain (vol. vi. p. 242) a book review which at one time and another has been the cause of a great deal of laughter. It is a review of a work by one George Clayton, Junior, giving an account of a "journey and visit to the metropolis of France." George Clayton, Junior, appears to have been the devout son of a dissenting clergyman; gifted with a positively inspired stupidity and bigotry, he not only achieved the temporary success of a second edition, but has been handed down to a more lasting fame as Hood's butt. The general character of the work may be inferred from the following passage, which occurs in the introduction, modestly enough called by the author his "Apology":

"The following Journal, written at subsequent periods of time, and in detached portions, is presented to the perusal of the reader with much humble diffidence and concomitant dissatisfaction; and perhaps, in justice to himself, the writer may be allowed in passing briefly to advert to the disadvantageous circumstances under which the appended narrative was composed, viz.—that it was entirely prepared during those interstices of time which were not filled up with the absorbent occupations of mercantile engagements—indited from the imperfect reminiscences of a defective and rather oblivious memory, and drawn up at a season when, if not entirely obliterated, the *vividness* of impression had, in a great measure, considerably abated; for it will not be controverted, he presumes, that *impression* is a kind of inspiration highly necessary and exceedingly helpful to infuse vivacity or impart a relevancy to those descriptions in which are portrayed those objects, the spectacle of which was very likely to produce a varied and forcible effect upon the mind of the observer of them."

It may interest those who are fond of Hood to know that the original copy of Clayton's book, which Hood read before writing his review, is in existence, in the possession of a gentleman in the town of Elizabeth, New Jersey, and it may fairly be called a very valuable literary curiosity. When Hood read the book he annotated it on the margins, and the annotations thus made he afterward incorporated in part in the review. They are, of course, a succession of exclamations, puns, and jokes of all kinds, many of which are of too light or personal a character to be reproduced in the review, but which are none the less amusing for that. The work is dedicated to the author's mother, "Mrs. George Clayton, in obedience to whose request the following narrative was expressly prepared," etc., etc.; Hood adds, parenthetically, by way of explanation, "Air—'Go, George; I can't endure you.'" The title-page is followed by a preface to the second edition, in which Mr. Clayton refers to the "favorable and unlooked-for reception" his Narrative had met with, and "ventures a renewed appearance" with the assurance that it will again meet with indulgence, however "feebly executed." Hood observes that this feebleness is "Jack Ketch's fault—the book deserves a better hand at it"—an omission which he certainly proceeded to supply. On the next page we find a few "errata" set down in the usual way; to these Hood adds: "Page everywhere—every line: instead of anything, read nothing." After the sentence quoted above from the "Apology," in which the author refers to the "abated" condition of the "vividness of impression," Hood says, "Poo-poo, no impression was necessary"; and on the next page, after the

following sentence: "Unaccustomed to the composition of writings of this kind, in the presentation of the subsequent Journal, the writer humbly and deferentially craves indulgence for that deficiency which he may exhibit of grammatical correctness or syntactical propriety and precision," Hood, with somewhat ribald appropriateness, adds, "Damn Lindley Murray," and in the same vein he adds to the next paragraph—in which the author declares that in a certain contingency the intention, motive, and desire which led to the publication of his Narrative "will not have been disappointed of their recompense of reward, verily"—"price, 1s. 6d." On page 17 Mr. Clayton's reference to his companion, "Mr. H——," gives Hood an opportunity to enter a disclaimer—"Not me, T. Hood." An idea as comical as any contained in Hood's punning ballads is put by him in the month of the sedate Mr. Clayton, where, in giving an account of Diligences, he is made to say that the conductor, "as well as the passengers who travel by them, are particularly careful that every person shall occupy the identical place which may be appropriated to him as marked upon his receipt, by a dent in the cushion." The author is, of course, particularly powerful in his denunciations of the mummeries of the Catholic religion and the Parisian desecration of the Sabbath. A page or so of savage zeal at the expense of the Bishop of Rome Hood sums up as "Man's essay on Pope!" The book is literally crammed full of jokes, good and bad, of every sort, and, what with the original fatuity of the author and the autograph annotations, is for reading aloud comparable only to the Portuguese 'New Guide of the Conversation.' It would be worth some publisher's while to bring out a third edition of it, with the notes in full.

—In 'Le Tartuffe par ordre de Louis XIV.' (New York: F. W. Christern) M. Lacour marshals facts and figures and newly-found documents to show that "Tartuffe" was not originally an attack on the Jesuits, but was, on the contrary, patronized by them and supported by the king as a direct assault on the Jansenists of Port Royal. He suggests that *Don Juan* was at least in part a portrait of Conti, who had turned from the most outrageous immorality to a sanctimonious bigotry almost as revolting. He shows beyond reasonable doubt that the original of *Tartuffe* was Roquette, at that time a Jansenist and the spiritual adviser of Conti. After having at one time befriended Molière, Conti, in 1658, finished his essay against the stage, which passed from hand to hand in MS. and was known to Molière, although not printed until 1671. Roquette was universally designated by contemporary opinion as the original of *Tartuffe*. In 1634, when the piece was first played, he was a Jansenist; two years later, suspecting, perhaps, the hand of the king in Molière's comedy, he renounced Port Royal and was rewarded with the bishopric of Autun. The Jansenists alone opposed the play; the Jesuits, as we have said, supported it. None of the circumstances of the comedy are applicable to the Jesuits—nearly all are to the Jansenists. The Jesuits, rich and powerful at court, had no reason to seek to steal the property of a *bourgeois*; liberal in their views toward the stage, they patronized it and allowed their pupils to perform even in ballets before the notabilities of the town (p. 112). One of them published a panegyric on "Tartuffe"; several of them eulogized Molière at his death. Molière had no motive for attacking them, while he had for assaulting the Jansenists. It was not until the next century, when Jansenism was dead, that the enemies of the Jesuits turned their own weapons against them. Then for the first time *Tartuffe* appeared in the habit of a priest, having previously worn the sombre attire affected by the Jansenists. In short, M. Lacour, though he seeks at times perhaps to prove too much, succeeds in making out a strong case. It is curious to note here that "Tartuffe," after having thus twice served in the party polemics of France, was in like manner used as a pamphlet twice in England, as the "Non-Juror" of Colley Cibber and the "Hypocrite" of Bickerstaff. M. Lacour, in the appendix to his little volume—which, by the way, is beautifully printed in the Elzevirian style—points out that the early provincial wanderings of Molière's company were peculiarly profitable to such an extent that he and the elder Béjart were enabled to lend money to the Province of Languedoc, and that when Molière came to Paris he was probably worth a sum equal to about twenty thousand dollars of the money of our day.

—One of the indirect results of the Russian occupation of Asia Minor may be to throw light on an historic problem which must always have a deep sentimental interest for mankind. We refer to the route of the retreat of the Ten Thousand Greeks under Xenophon, and particularly the latter part of it, in which the Mountain Theches, from which the sea first became visible, still remains to be determined beyond dispute. It is a question whether the Greeks passed to the east or west of Erzerum, or indeed through the place. Col. Strecker, formerly and perhaps still in the Turkish service, had made numerous reconnoissances in Upper Armenia when, in No. 24 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* (1869), he

published an elaborate paper on the line of retreat, from a military and topographical point of view. According to him the Greeks crossed the western Euphrates between Erzerum and Erzingan, but much nearer the latter town, and thence, pursuing a course generally northwest, reached the Kolat-Dagh, which Col. Strecker identified with Xenophon's Theches. But, contrary to the impression derived from the narrative, he made the Greeks, instead of continuing their march north, almost retrace their steps southwardly, in a long détour, till the road to Trebizond via Gümüşkhane was reached. Dr. Kiepert dissented altogether from this theory, and argued in favor of the line east of Erzerum, using the ethnographical data of the Anabasis to maintain his position, and especially insisting on the identification of Ispir (the town on the Joruk lately said to have been reached by the Russian cavalry) with the (tribe) Hesperites of Xenophon. In the following year (*Zeitschrift* No. 29) Kiepert treated with great respect the theory of an engineer, Herr Borit, employed at Trebizond, who found an unnamed mountain south of and lower than the Kolat-Dagh, which not only gave an outlook on the Black Sea through fortunate gaps in the intervening range, but whose summit still bore a large tumulus of porphyritic stones, surrounded by smaller but higher conical heaps. The tumulus was, in the middle, 2½ German feet high, and 30 feet in diameter—hardly imposing enough for the trophy described by Xenophon. Some portion of the stones being removed, fragments of red and black pottery, such as is still used in that region, were found underneath. Herr Borit's discovery that the sea was visible from a point hitherto, on account of its altitude, regarded as out of the question, reinforced Strecker's route west of the Kolat-Dagh; and, so far as we are aware, this is the latest stage of the controversy. Maps illustrating Strecker and Borit, and useful also for the present campaign, will be found in the *Zeitschrift* as indicated. The commonly accepted route, following Koch and the English authorities, is mapped (to name the latest text-books) in the 'Xenophon' of the Ancient Classics Series (Lippincott, 1871), and still better in Taylor's 'Anabasis,' just published by Rivingtons (London).

—The scholars of Scandinavia and Germany are zealously continuing their investigations into the character and sources of the Icelandic versions of French *chansons de geste*, and other mediæval productions of the European continent, which, after the middle of the thirteenth century, form so important a portion of the old Northern literature. This field has, until recently, been comparatively neglected, the efforts of philologists and critics having been almost exclusively devoted to the elucidation of original works. A collection of texts, without comment, published many years ago by the Royal Society of Northern Antiquaries of Copenhagen, included a few of these foreign tales; a few more—notably 'Strengleikar,' a compilation containing a great number of Breton *lais*, the 'Thidreks Saga,' 'Barlaams og Josaphats Saga,' the 'Alexanders Saga,' and the 'Karlsmagnús Saga'—were subsequently well edited by the Icelandic scholars of Christiania; but, beyond these, very few texts were issued down to 1872. In that year the publication of 'Riddara Sögur'—four of these romantic sagas, three of them being Arthurian—by Dr. Eugen Kölbing, now a professor in the University of Breslau (see *Nation*, No. 513), gave a fresh impetus and a new direction to the researches of old Northern scholars, and much labor has since been expended upon the comparison of the Northern versions with their Southern originals. Dr. Kölbing himself has pursued his investigations, and has published the results in several remarkable articles in the *Germania*, under the titles of "Ueber isländische Bearbeitungen fremder Stoffe" (vol. xvii. part 2), "Bruchstück einer Amicus og Amilius Saga" (xix. 2), and "Zur alten romantischen Literatur im Norden," the last being a series of essays of which the second has lately appeared. Meanwhile, that diligent Norwegian scholar, Gustav Storm, has entered the same field in an article, "Om Eufemiaviserne," in the *Nordisk Tidsskrift for Philologi og Pædagogik*, treating of the sources of the famous poems which were composed at the instigation of Queen Eufemia, the German consort of the Norwegian king Hakon Magnússon (1299-1319); and in an independent publication, 'Sagnkreisene om Karl den Store og Diedrik af Bern hos de nordiske Folk,' which endeavors to present a comprehensive view of the various versions and adaptations of the legends of the Carolingian cycle and of that of Dietrich of Bern by the mediæval sagamen and poets of the Scandinavian countries. The latter, as Dr. Kölbing notes, is a work which will be of vast assistance to whosoever shall compile a complete history of the great legendary epics of the Middle Ages.

—Still later than these productions of Storm is a dissertation by F. A. Wulff, of the Swedish University of Lund, entitled 'Notice sur les Sagas de Mágus et de Geirard et leurs rapports aux épopées françaises,' which has given rise to an amount of comment altogether out of proportion to the real value

of the original publication. Dr. Kölbing has supplemented the author's researches in the *Germania* (xxi. 3), as have also Dr. H. Suchier, in an extended and admirable article, "Die Quellen der Mágus Saga" (xx. 3), and Dr. R. Köhler in a briefer sketch, "Zur Mágus Saga" (xxi. 1). Important additions have likewise been made by M. Gaston Paris in the *Romania* (iv. p. 474). The Mágus saga is not a translation of a single southern production. Its Icelandic compiler has evidently availed himself of a considerable number of tales brought, in great part orally, from the Continent by his travelled countrymen. Some of these appear to have been derived from lost French *chansons*, as the *Chanson de Mabrian*, while others are from the *Chanson de Mágus*, which gives its name to the saga, the *Chorroi de Nismes*, the *Pris d'Orange*, *Girard de Viane*, the *Voyage de Charlemagne*, the *Quatre Fils Aymon*, and other productions of the XIIIth century, from the Mirrims saga, the southern sources of which are still undiscovered, and from the "Gesta Romanorum." Among the episodes of the saga is the incident which Shakspeare subsequently used as the groundwork of "All's Well that Ends Well," and which he borrowed from the story of Giletta di Nerbona and Beltramo di Rossiglione in the 'Decameron.' To these notices of romance literature in the ancient North it is proper to add that the work lately edited by the learned Unger of Christiania, 'Postala Sögur' (of which an excellent review by Dr. Konrad Maurer is to be found in a recent number of the *Literarisches Centralblatt*), consists of translations, from mediæval Latin sources, of legends relating to the lives of the saints; and that a long article, "Zur Thidreks Saga," by Dr. H. Treutler, in the *Germania* (xx. 2), treats of the relations of the Icelandic saga to its German originals. One phase of this subject, to which little attention has yet been paid, is likely to prove of a good deal of interest. Many of the tales and incidents thus transplanted from the early popular literature of the South have become a part of the modern folk-lore of Iceland. Several such, occurring in the very full collection published by Jón Arnason, have been already pointed out by Dr. Kölbing, and many others will doubtless be hereafter identified.

—The rapidly-swelling list of German periodicals has been lately augmented by *Kosmos*, a scientific monthly published in Leipzig and edited, "in conjunction with Charles Darwin and Ernst Haeckel," by Dr. Otto Caspari of Heidelberg, Professor Gustav Jäger of Stuttgart, and Dr. Ernst Krause of Berlin. Taking the Darwinian theory of evolution for its starting point, and assuming the essential identity of all sciences, the sphere of the new periodical extends far into the domain of abstract speculation. Its doctrines are fully set forth in Dr. Caspari's article on "The Union of Moral and Natural Philosophy," which defines nature as a "constitutionalism" of forces behind which there is neither an overshadowing mystical power nor the absolute matter of the materialists. The article challenges alike spiritual belief and materialistic unbelief, and, although entirely moderate in its tone, rejects unequivocally the "illogical and superficial doctrines of the Büchners and Moleschotts." In the first of an announced series of "Physiological Letters" Professor Jäger discusses the question, why the flesh of any animal species retains its properties from generation to generation, without assuming those of the flesh on which it feeds—why, for instance, the flesh of the fish-eating bird does not turn into flesh of fish. In answer to this question he advances the theory that the albuminous constituents of protoplasm divide, in the process of assimilation, into two atomic groups, in one of which, called by him the group of specific atoms, reside in any species the peculiar taste and smell which really govern assimilation. The process of assimilation is, then, determined by the affinities existing between the specific atoms of two albuminous substances. Professor Jäger maintains that it is these chemical forces which underlie and in fact are the instinct of animals guiding them in the selection of their food, and prompting each to evade its enemy. It is the purpose of Professor Jäger to ascertain by chemical experiments the degree to which the smell characteristic of an animal can be traced in its albumen. The same author has a short article on "Modern Anthropology," in which he speaks of the tyranny which Cuvier's dogma, "There is no fossil man," exercised even over the founder of prehistoric science, Sir Charles Lyell, who allowed twenty-six years to elapse before appreciating the discoveries of Dr. Schimperling in the caves at Liège at their true value. It was the publication of Darwin's 'Origin of Species' which first powerfully stimulated anthropological research. Besides these articles, "The Records of 'Phylogeny' (*Stammesgeschichte*)," by Professor Haeckel; "The History of Creation and Chorology of 299 Years Ago," by Dr. Krause; "The Importance and the Objects of Ethnography," by Friedrich von Hellwald; a review of Darwin's "Results of Cross and Self-Fertilization in the Vegetable Kingdom," by Dr. Hermann Müller, and miscellaneous notes make up the contents of the first number. As might be im-

agined, the articles are all weighty, most of them, in fact, demanding of the reader a degree of thought and familiarity with the subject which the "intelligent general public," on whom *Kosmos* relies for support, does not usually bring to the perusal of periodicals.

SQUIER'S PERU.*

II.

THE language of the Quichuas is radically connected with that of the Aymarás. It can be said that they appear in history rather as a linguistic group than as anything else. The spread of their idiom, however, is attributed mainly to the conquests of the Incas. The main question, therefore, and the one to whose solution, as far as monuments may go, Mr. Squier has taken great pains to contribute, is: What were the Incas, and what influence did they exert within the limits which they overran? The Incas were Quichuas, and the Quichuas themselves issued from Aymará stock. The name means "leader" or "chieftain," but there is no approach in it either to a royal title or to a priestly designation. The Incas were a tribe, and not a dynasty—as Mr. Squier tacitly admits. Not one of the authors who wrote at the time when Pizarro first landed mentions the name "Inca." Huayna-Ceapac and Huascar are called "old and young Cuzco" by Francisco de Xerez, Miguel Astete, and Hernando Pizarro. This shows that they but represented the power of the tribe dwelling at Cuzco (since that place was known as far as Tumbez in Ecuador), and not the monarchical sway of a privileged family. Pedro de Cieza, whose chronicle of Peru appeared about 1553, and who spent nearly four years in that country, says that Manco-Ceapac, the reputed founder of the Incas, "had a very humble origin." The native author, Saleamayhua, asserts that Manco was but the "apu," or chief, of an insignificant tribe which moved from the Collao into the valley of Cuzco, and settled there. The legends of the Incas themselves designate Lake Titicaca as the starting point of their spread. But the tradition also goes that the "Creator" dwelt at Tiahuanuco, while he bade the sun and moon rise from Titicaca. Coupled with the similarity of languages, it is another indication of that connection between the Aymarás and the Incas which we have assumed—a connection which Mr. Squier feels justified in doubting.

But he himself establishes a further connecting link between the two tribes by the great similarity of their architecture. The gigantic walls of Tiahuanuco are emulated by those of the buildings of Cuzco, by the immense "cyclopean" lines of fortifications which rise over the sides of the "Saesahuaman"; and the perfect accuracy with which the stones are joined and sometimes cut is a characteristic common to the edifices of Inca origin as well as to those on Aymará soil. The singular "T clamp," so conspicuous in the masonry of Tiahuanuco, was found by Mr. Squier in the Inca ruins of Ollantaytambo. As a distinguishing feature of Inca architecture, however, Mr. Squier has established the pointed gable of the roof, pitched at a very steep angle. It appears to be common to all their roofed edifices, the Temple of the Sun not excepted. We meet with them first on the islands of Titicaca, and then all over the specifically "Quichua" land. Mr. Squier has beautifully described and illustrated the remarkable ruins of the islands of Titicaca. In common with his predecessors, he recognizes in them the vestiges of a sacred shrine devoted to a worship connected with the mythical origin of the Incas. But it is easy to discern in these popular tales the simple fact of an immigration from Tiahuanuco to the islands of the great lake, where, surrounded by hostile tribes all along the shores, but sheltered from these by the water-sheet, a community of its own sprang up, which, in contradistinction to the Aymarás proper, had to resort to agriculture exclusively. The ruins on the islands Titicaca and Coati fully bear out the fact (which is further sustained by the more sheltered position of their grounds) that there was more Indian garden-culture there than over the rest of the Aymará plateau. From this isolated spot the Incas descended, as a small tribe probably, of conquering agricultural village Indians, as far as Cuzco, whose soil and climate both were better adapted to culture even than their island home. This is, in accordance with the material furnished by Mr. Squier, though not with his views, the natural explanation of the "legend of Manco-Ceapac."

In the region of Cuzco the Incas could develop their agricultural propensities. There they were no longer at the mercy of their surroundings for subsistence. Besides, the topography of the country is such that they could easily defend it against any outside raids. Thus the two principal conditions for future aggression were given: perfect independence in regard to food and military invulnerability. The picture which Mr. Squier

enables us to form of Inca society is very plain. Cuzco (which, by the way, according to Cieza, "was the only place in Peru that appeared like a city"—a very significant remark) appears on his plat as divided into "upper" and "lower"; these again subdivided into twelve sections, called by him "wards." With the aid of this description, and coupling it with the fact reported by Molina, that in all religious festivals the people divided into two parties—those of Upper Cuzco on one side and those of Lower Cuzco on the other—we obtain a full view of the social arrangement of the Inca tribe. They composed two "phratries," from each of which (according to Acosta and Herrera) the head chief was alternately chosen. The "wards" themselves consisted of large squares, "built around a court, presenting exteriorly an unbroken wall, having but a single entrance, and, except in rare instances, no exterior windows." Thus they also were after the type of those communal houses which we have found already among the Yuncas of the coast and the Aymarás. The wards were the homes of so many "kins," and the "empire" of the Incas dwindles down to the rule of a warlike tribe over their neighbors.

Mr. Squier designates the Incas as "heads of a great nation, dependent on agriculture." We have already alluded to their strong position for military defence. In this manner they enjoyed a doubly safe basis for defence and aggression. For the latter they had a powerful incentive in their religion. It was not sun-worship proper, but the adoration of a universal creator, beside whom the sun was only an important agency. Thus their religious notions stood higher than those of the sun-worshipping Aymarás, still higher than those of the other tribes addicted, like the Yuncas, to fetishism; and Polo de Ondegardo is right in stating that Inca success dates from the time of their adoration of a spiritual omnipotent being. This they called "the conquering teacher of the world, floating on the wave's crest."

Wilhelm von Humboldt has designated the character of Inca-conquest as "wild and impetuous." Although Garcilasso de la Vega, whom Mr. Squier regards as the highest authority on ancient Peru, presents a different picture, we still have good reasons to adhere to the opinion of the German philologist. The conquests of the Incas were mere forays for the purpose of plunder, rendering tributary the vanquished tribes, and asserting the authority of their creed over that of the others. The condition of the tribes whom they thus overcame was not (if the conquest itself did not end in extermination) materially changed. There were no Inca settlements established on the coast or the Collao. The natives continued to live under their own chiefs as before, the only representative of Inca power among them being the gatherer of tribute. That the Quichua idiom was forced upon the conquered is not confirmed. The influence of the Incas was therefore very limited, and the ties which held together the vast expanse of territory were loose; there was no homogeneity, no "nation," still less an "empire."

One feature, however, appears to militate against the opinion we have advanced, and these are the public works attributed to the Incas—namely, the roads and fortifications. It is a current notion that they constructed an astounding system of thoroughfares, extending uninterruptedly from Cuzco to Quito. Mr. Squier has found and established an ugly break in this surmised line of roads. He says: "As I have said, few traces of the Inca roads, such as are described by the early writers, and such as Humboldt saw in northern Peru, are now to be found in the southern part of that country; and as the modern pathways must follow the ancient lines, I infer that they never existed here, for there is no reason why they should have suffered more from time and the elements in one part of the country than in another." He might have added that an attentive study of the reports of those who witnessed the conquests of Pizarro, and who participated in the subsequent civil wars, fully confirms his assertion.

Extensive constructions, combining both dwellings and evident fortifications, are found in and around the Quichua home proper, barring access to the "bolsones" from the south, as at Piquillacta, or defending both ends of the highly valuable valley of Yucay, as at Ollantaytambo and at Pisac. Above Cuzco itself towers yet the grand work of the "Saesahuaman," of which Mr. Squier has given us not only very valuable plans but especially views. There is no doubt that these military edifices must create astonishment, for they are, not only in size (like Pisac, which Mr. Squier compares to the great hill-forts of India) but in disposition, far above any other military constructions of the American aborigines. But these remarkable edifices are crowded together on a limited space only. They are the outposts along specific Inca ground, and beyond it Mr. Squier has failed to detect anything like them. He describes the "pucara" of the Aymarás, the walled enclosures of the coast people, but among these, however subject they were to Inca-sway, the Incas had not constructed

* Peru Incidents of Travel and Exploration in the Land of the Incas. By E. George Squier. New York: Harper & Prothers. 1877.

any defenses after the model of the elaborate bulwarks of Piquillaeta, or the mammoth lines of inaccessible Pisac. This again shows that the works of the Incas were strictly limited to the territory of the *tribu*, the territory being converted into a fortress, from which they could sally forth, harassing the other tribes and holding them in subjection through terror alone.

It is greatly to be regretted that Mr. Squier has not in his book given us as much information upon the arts and manufactures of the Incas as upon those of the Yuncas; else we might be prepared to discuss the question as to what degree of superiority they enjoyed over their neighbors in these branches. In statuary they seem to have been beneath the coast-people. Mr. Squier gives illustrations of art-objects from China which find no parallel among any yet found at Cuzco. The treatment of metals was about the same by both; the utensils for working stones must have been the same as well as the weapons, although the Incas probably had, besides the star-formed club of which Mr. Squier gives a fine illustration, also the sword. In general, it may be safe to admit that the Yuncas and the Incas were nearly equally advanced, whereas the Aymarás fell behind both. The same is true of agriculture, which was carried on throughout Peru on the same principles; and what on the coast, for instance, has been represented as public work of the Incas is clearly established by Mr. Squier's labors as communal work of the coast-people themselves. Thus gradually every feature ascribed to a superior statesmanship on the part of the Incas resolves itself into a simple function of the life of disconnected tribes, and "Peruvian civilization" sinks to the level of aboriginal American society and its organic development.

OUR WEATHER SERVICE.*

THE great invention of the electric telegraph can be applied to no more beneficent use than warning mariners of approaching gales. Among the most interesting pages of the report before us are those quoting statements of the economic results of the exhibition of the cautionary signals before storms. The common consent with which vessels in the act of starting or in the neighborhood of stations obey this warning and seek secure anchorage, is a sufficient proof that their officers place a high value upon the information thus signalled. The saving of property thus effected benefits chiefly the marine insurance companies, and though not calculated on the part of the Government, might be regarded by the companies as balancing the with *Adam* damages many times over.

The observers at coast-stations appear to keep a chronicle of disasters happening in their neighborhood, as evidence of the importance of local warning. Thus, we learn from the Newport sergeant's report that three of the four Fall-River and New-York steamers suffered accidents from storms during the year ending June, 1876. And besides these separate local chronicles there is also an appendix containing a full chronological list of over thirteen hundred disasters on the lakes alone within the year covered by the volume. Among these were 102 vessels sunk; and the total loss of life is reported as 144. With the exception of some 200 collisions and fires, all of these disasters resulted from storms, and could have been prevented by a more effective system of signalling. It is hence apparent that the present system of warnings, beneficial as it is, is not yet more than half perfected. It is entirely possible to anticipate every high wind and give ample notice of it along all the coasts, so that disasters should be confined to ocean passages. But it is more reasonable to anticipate that this will come to pass from private enterprise than from the good-will of Congress, or from the present management of the Bureau. We can readily point out three important changes by means of which a system of signalling under private control could be rendered thoroughly effective instead of half so.

First, watch should be kept by night as well as by day, either by self-registering instruments or by observers, and the telegraphs should be accessible to the observers at night and on Sundays.

Secondly, the stations should be separated into two classes—observing stations and exhibiting stations—selected on widely different principles. The chief source of the inefficiency of the present observing stations is the fact that they are located in the worst places that could have been chosen. They ought to be high up, where they could feel the true direction and free force of the wind; not necessarily on hill-tops, but on ridges or so-called divides. Instead of this they are mostly in river valleys, because in such valleys large towns grow. But valleys are the very last places which ought to be chosen for watching the approach of storms, because they are so sheltered that the winds are both broken in force (so that the anemometer underrates

them) and bent in direction, vertically as well as horizontally, so as to falsify the barometer as well as the vane. Practically, a few luckily more exposed stations do the accurate watching for the majority.

Thirdly, the other class of stations, those at which warnings are exhibited, need have no regard to the facilities of observation just mentioned, and should be freely exposed not to the wind but to ships. They should be located on prominent capes or islands, at frequent and regular intervals along our coasts, and need not be near towns at all. They could be equipped with rockets and pyrotechnic bomb-mortars for unusually important night-warnings, the missiles being discharged at stated times, if at all; the number of rockets at each discharge might also equal the number of hours before the gale is expected. In the daytime white flags could serve the same purpose of predicting the time, and their position, relatively to that of the red flag, could denote the quarter from which the gale would blow (thus, white above red could indicate north; at its right, east, etc.; the viewpoint being understood to be the sea). If all the promontories of our lake and Atlantic coasts were thus capacitated to convey warnings, all coasting vessels would regularly sail near enough in shore to be in sight of these beacon headlands, and to profit by the information positively or negatively given; and a coasting voyage would be as safe as a canal-trip.

Considered in its relation to the science of meteorology, the value of the United States Government reports is overrated. The objection is that evidence is not sifted before being accepted and generalized. Hence many of the tabulated statements are crude and heterogeneous. We annulled some time ago upon the current method of reducing barometric readings, which we believe brings confusion into all maps and tables where the barometer is concerned; and we have referred above to the unfortunate selection of observing stations, which, in its scientific aspect, destroys the unity of wind maps. It is timely to call attention to this evil because attempts are now being made at international weather-maps, and it is unpleasant that such attempts should be marred at the outset. There are maps in the volume before us showing the direction of the wind simultaneously at places scattered over the six continents. Why is it that such maps are not full of graceful curves converging and diverging around the nuclei of low and high barometer, all over the world? Because when cavities like Pittsburgh are allowed an equal voice in arranging the chart, the result must be an agglomeration of local valley currents conforming only obtusely to the real motions above them, and presenting on paper a discordant jumble of arrows chopping across each other, instead of a harmonious expression of the true mundane movements. More truth and unity, then, would be imparted to these international maps if those data were to be rejected which the places furnishing them are physically incapacitated from giving candidly.

We have not found as large a percentage of errors in the present as in some previous volumes of the Signal Service Reports; but the number is still so large as to exclude the entire work from being regarded as a contribution to science. We do not refer so much to gross single errors, like the assertion that the temperature fell to -52° in November, 1874, in a place on the Jersey coast, or the mistake of six degrees in the longitude of Buffalo, which would place it in Massachusetts, as we do to errors involving large numbers of figures. For instance, no meteorologist will believe that of two towns situated on the Atlantic coast, at a place where the coast runs north and south, the more northerly town possesses the warmer average yearly temperature; he will, instead, distrust all the figures concerned in producing such incredible aggregates. It should be added that the part of the coast referred to is unindented; otherwise the citation would scarcely be candid, since such retrogradations of temperature sometimes occur in extremely indented coasts, like those of Northern Europe, but never on so even an edge as that of the Middle and Southern Atlantic States. Sometimes we find an item differently given in two places; thus, the yearly rainfall at Fort Sully is given on page 32 as 72 inches, and on page 153 as 12 inches. And here we may remark the setting of widely different estimates upon the force of the same gales: thus, at New London and New Haven there were, during the year, 48 and 46 cautionary signals ordered. Out of these, the observer at New London reports 30 justified and 18 not justified, while he of New Haven almost reverses this judgment, and calls 18 justified against 25 not justified (and 3 doubtful). Now, though individual storms may differ in severity at places as near together as these, yet that this discrepancy would repeat itself a score of times in the same scale of the balance will not be credited. Perhaps, indeed, the Elm City is so much more secluded than its sister that gales can seldom occur there, but then such a fact is a part of the problem of prediction, and does not justify mistakes. A similar, though less notable, variation occurs between Oswego and Rochester. We might expect to find the former the windier,

* "Annual Report of the Chief Signal Officer for the Year 1876." Washington: Government Printing-Office.

as being nearer the lake. Yet the same number, 31, of signals was ordered for both ports, and out of this number the sergeant at Oswego reports 21 not justified to 10 justified, while the sergeant at Rochester declares it a drawn game. It might be remarked, by the way, that the reports have hitherto been silent concerning the proportion of justifications of omissions to display signals, *i.e.*, how often gales have occurred of which no warning had been given. The present report has some frank if not encouraging words on this subject, which is to receive hereafter the attention it deserves. Meantime, the 102 vessels sunk on the lakes speak for themselves.

In any scientific service dismissal would follow upon the forwarding of impossible or contradictory reports; yet one sergeant who thus contradicted himself was not relieved, whereas many others were degraded or dismissed for reasons sometimes stated and sometimes not stated in General Myer's report. The reasons should always be put in print. The loss of a trained observer should be felt to be a serious one, and reasonable expectations ought to be held out that the tenure is for life; and one way to create such expectation is to oblige one's self to give valid reasons for all dismissals. In a report five hundred pages long there is space enough for this.

Errors of economy should be overhauled, even if slight. It is an error of economy to make unnecessary changes. It seems unnecessary to break up old stations and open new ones, without condescending to confess that the old ones were badly located, if that was the cause, which we doubt. Two stations on the New Jersey coast, Peck's Beach and Squan Beach, have been discontinued—reason alleged, diminished appropriation; but this reason works the other way. A diminished appropriation ought to lead to conservatism and making the best of what one has; change is expensive and appropriately follows increase of appropriation, not diminution. Seven new stations have been opened: at Thatcher's Island, Mass.; Newport; Malone, N. Y.; Cape Lookout, and Smithville, N. C.; Evanston, Ill., and Manhattan, Kansas. No reasons are given for the preference of these new sites over the rejected ones, for whose original selection somebody was responsible.

The statistics of the monthly and year's rainfall for ninety-six stations are given clearly and compactly in a table, and the precipitation for the separate months is also pictorially exhibited in twelve maps, in which different shades of blue indicate different depths of rain. These maps would be valuable for purposes of comparison were it not that, by an unfortunate whim, the same amount of rainfall is denoted by different colors in different months; thus, the deepest shade denotes in the maps for November and December, 5 inches; in those for January and February, 7 inches; in that for May, 8 inches; and in the remaining maps 10 inches. It is true that if the deepest color were reserved always for a fall of over 10 inches, and the next deepest for a fall of $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches, these two shades might find no occasion for being used on some of the maps; but enough other tints are employed; and as showing how much less precipitation occurs in winter, no harm would result from the conspicuous omission of the darker shades. Another error of method in these maps consists in not connecting the colors of adjacent places; thus, all the surface of the States of California and Oregon is represented as rainless even in their rainiest months, except within the small blue circles surrounding the three signal stations. It would misrepresent less to divide equally the room between the nearest stations; thus, if in a given month, as January, 1876, 3 inches fall at San Diego and 7 inches at San Francisco, let the tint denoting 3 inches extend half-way from the former to the latter, and then let the 7-inch shade commence and extend northward till half way from San Francisco to Portland. This, though often untrue, would be less untrue than denoting most of the intermediate country as utterly without rain, for this is the signification which the map itself attaches to the untinted white with which the Pacific States are mostly covered.

Among the curiosities of this report are the facts that the warmest day in the year on Mount Washington was the 1st of September. The wind has been higher there than ever before recorded, attaining once the velocity of 170 miles per hour. The temperature once fell 42° in $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and that, too, at a time of day when the temperature usually rises, *viz.*, from 10 A.M. to $2\frac{1}{2}$ P.M., showing that on the tops of mountains direct sunlight does not always cause heat. In San Francisco the month which had the highest average temperature was October, 61° . In the first annual report of the Signal Service this same month of October was likewise recorded as the warmest summer month in the same city, averaging that year 65° . At the time we expressed the opinion that the 65° degrees was an error for 55° , but we must consider the first report confirmed by this year's repetition. The highest monthly average reported for July comes from Montgomery, Ala., 86° . The hottest single observation is 107° , from Shreveport, La. The coldest monthly average is -4° , Pembina, Dakota, February; Mount

Washington for the same month averaging $+7^{\circ}$. The coldest single observation is -48° , also from Pembina. The highest averages for February come from Florida, which varies between 73° and 60° . The least annual rainfall occurred at North Platte, Nebraska, 10 inches; the greatest at Shreveport, La., 72 inches.

A System of Political Economy. By John Lancelot Shadwell. (London: Trübner, 1877.)—If we had to hazard a guess respecting the author of this goodly volume, we should say that he was a well-intentioned but immature writer who had carefully studied the standard English works on his subject but had, through a want of continued and careful reflection, exaggerated the novelty and importance of his own ideas. There is now and then a tinge of school-boy simplicity in his style, which is not at all a defect, but which writers of experience are not apt to retain. There is also a diffuseness and even prolixity in dwelling on unimportant points, which appears to come from the desire of the writer to introduce the reader into the innermost recesses of his own consciousness. We are thus treated to a kind of intellectual hospitality which is not at all unpleasant, being, in fact, calculated to give us a very favorable impression of the writer's character and intentions, but which it is from a purely business point of view, a waste of time to enjoy. He informs us that the principal object of the work is to lay before the reader his theories of value and wages, deeming it of greater interest to present these theories as part of a complete treatise on political economy than to let them stand alone. The work, in general, deviates so little from the beaten track that his views on the subject of value and wages are the only ones which it would interest us to examine. Here, however, we are met at the outset by the difficulty that the theories in question are concealed in such a profusion of very pleasant small talk that much patient search is necessary to find them, and much care to recognize them when found.

As far as Mr. Shadwell's theory of value is concerned, we are unable to see in what essential point it differs from that of Adam Smith, as modified by Mill. The question of its novelty is, however, of comparatively slight importance; for we conceive that the want of political economy at the present time is not so much new ideas as clear and precise statements of principles which are more or less known. For some time to come, the science must advance in the direction of precise thought and language rather than of new or profound investigation. In the theory presented by Mr. Shadwell, the subjects of value and wages are so intimately connected that they have to be considered together. He insists that the value of a commodity depends solely upon the labor and abstinence which are necessary to produce it in the least favorable circumstances. All laborers, in whatever trade they are engaged, obtain commodities with the same amount of labor as those who actually produce them. If the wages of a farm-laborer, measured by the corn they will purchase, are twice as high in America as in England, it is because a day's labor will produce twice as much corn in the former as in the latter country. Now, we had supposed this idea that value could in some way be measured by labor to have been long ago exploded as a principle of political economy. Of course, no one denies that this rule holds true in the case of similar occupations, and in fact of all occupations which can be pursued without exceptional skill, and without the command of natural agents limited in supply. But the immediate successors of Adam Smith were slow to see that the rule was thus limited. If the case of the eminent barrister who earns more in a day than a laborer can in a whole year was pointed out to them, they replied that the labor thus paid for was measured by that of the preliminary training necessary to the barrister, and perhaps that of a number of unsuccessful men who had failed in the attempt to become successful barristers. Only in recent times has it been shown that there is no fixed and necessary relation of the kind, and that the labor of the lawyer and the navy cannot be reduced to any common measure whatever.

Perhaps the most novel element of Mr. Shadwell's theory is the extreme to which he carries his views. He says that if a carpenter's wages are twice as high as those of a common laborer, it is because it is found that one carpenter can do twice as much carpentering in the same time as a common laborer. We conceive that if Mr. Shadwell had put two common laborers instead of one carpenter to repair his house before promulgating his theory, he might have made important modifications in it. It is now well known that this reasoning was fatally defective in jumping over an intermediate cause between labor and value, and in not sufficiently considering the effect of certain agents and qualities essential to production being in some sort monopolized. The market value of commodities is determined, in the first place, by the relation between the supply and the demand; and it is only when the supply can be increased without limit that the price will bear a necessary

relation to the labor of production. The law which governs the relation of supply, demand, and price is so simple and well understood in its practical aspects by every one engaged in the conduct of business that it requires some patience to reason with any one who professes not to understand it in the abstract. Mr. Shadwell cites the following case: About noon on the 25th of April, 1865, the news of President Lincoln's assassination reached London, and its immediate effect was a marked increase in the sale of the daily newspapers during that afternoon, many copies being sold for much more than their usual price. The *London Times* went up from thirty centimes, its usual price, to three francs. He wants to know why the price was just three francs, and neither more nor less. After devoting ten pages to a consideration of the principles involved in the case, he comes to the conclusion that all the theories which he has met with are truisms, and that he is unable to devise one which will satisfactorily account for the phenomena of market value, and must therefore leave the question unexplained, relegating it to the same limbo with that of eccentric comets in astronomy.

Altogether we cannot consider the work before us as having added materially to the thought on the subject of which it treats. There is, on the whole, a great deal that is good, and not much that is bad in a positive way. Although the wages question is one of the main features of the book, the author seems to be entirely unacquainted with Mr. Walker's treatise on the subject, which might have given him many valuable ideas. The prolixity of its style will probably prevent all but people of leisure from attempting to go through it.

Roman History. The Early Empire. From the assassination of Julius Cæsar to that of Domitian. By W. W. Capes, M.A. With two maps. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 16mo.)—The success of the admirable series of 'Epochs of Modern History,' edited by Mr. Morris, has called out two other courses of Epochs—of ancient and of English history—a mistaken idea, as it seems to us; for by the term "epoch" one naturally understands a synchronistic view embracing a number of nations—a history of the world for a certain brief time. For a single nation, therefore, the term seems a misnomer, and hardly less so when, as in antiquity, one nation at a time carries on the general history of the world. For example, the volume before us is a history of Rome for the period of about a century, and of nothing else; the Parthian Empire is barely mentioned, and the Germans make no figure in Mr. Capes's narrative. Moreover, its author has announced another volume upon the second century of the Empire, which of course will be to all intents and purposes a continuation of this. Why not call it, then, what it is, a history of the Roman Empire in so many volumes?

The execution is good. The narrative is especially well done, in a graphic, attractive style; the political history, too, is excellent—the changes of dynasty and their causes, court intrigues, the character and motives of men. As to these last, there is little attempt at set analysis, but the actions of men are made to illustrate their characters—a process especially good in the case of Augustus, Nero, and Domitian. In regard to Tiberius, the author takes the old familiar view, as presented by Tacitus, rather than that of Stahr and others, who attempt to extenuate the tyranny of this ruler; he is willing at most to admit that the statements of the ancient writers may have been exaggerated. He gives half a dozen chapters at the close of the book upon "The State of Trade," "The Revival of Religious Sentiment," and similar subjects, very instructive as to the state of the world at the close of the first Christian century. In short, the distinctively historical parts are admirable.

Constitutional points are not so well done. As to this, it is sufficient to say that they show no marks of familiarity with Mommsen's 'Staatsrecht,' a treatise which—whether its conclusions are accepted or not—is indispensable to any study of this subject. The *Dyarchy*, as Mommsen calls it, or system of rivalry between the constitutional authority of the senate and the new authority of the emperor—a rivalry which continued till the close of the second century, and some traces of it even later—is not clearly described. The author avoids Mr. Merivale's mistake of representing all the powers of the emperor as conferred by special grant of individual powers and titles; nevertheless he does not seem fully to appreciate the comprehensive force of the title *Imperator*; and of the fundamental importance of the proconsular powers he appears to have no conception. The statement (p. 20) that the imperial provinces were "ruled by generals, called *legati*," answers well enough as a loose popular description, for the *legati* were generals; but it was not as generals that they ruled, but as deputies (*legati*) of the emperor, himself *de jure* invested with the permanent government of all these provinces. We think Mr. Capes is mistaken

(p. 186) in defining the *jus exilii* as the right to go into exile; it was rather the right of an allied town to receive a Roman citizen into exile—a right justly regarded as implying independence and sovereignty.

The map of ancient Italy is very good for general purposes, but, unfortunately, does not illustrate the period of the early Empire. These divisions of the Republican time had now fallen into disuse, and Italy was divided by Augustus into twelve Regions—in the main agreeing with the old divisions, but not the same in all respects; e.g., Apulia and Calabria were united to form the Second Region. The map of the Roman Empire is not so good, as there is no uniformity in the divisions of the Empire, which are sometimes the names of nations, sometimes of provinces. Hispania, for example, was only a geographical and national term, being divided into three provinces, Tarraconensis, Bætica, and Lusitania. None of these are given. Gallia, too, formed four provinces, only one of which, Belgica, is given. Germania should be divided into two provinces. Similar errors are found in the East; and here the Empire is made to embrace Arabia, a territory which was not annexed until the time of Trajan.

History of Cambridge, Mass., 1630-1877. With a Genealogical Register. By Lucius R. Paige. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1877.)—The civil history of Cambridge, which forms the subject of Mr. Paige's first chapters, is that of great expectations never realized. Originally founded for the rulers of the infant colony as a securer settlement that might eventually be fortified, it failed to compete with Boston as a residence and as the seat of government, although the General Court was held there for several years. Its commercial aspirations were early seen to be futile, yet in 1805 it was made a port of delivery, and expensive docks and canals were built as if for an immense trade; but the embargo of 1807 nipped the speculation in the bud, and determined finally the character of Cambridge as a quiet, suburban municipality. New Town was its name up to the founding of Harvard College, which probably suggested the change. It would have been superfluous in Mr. Paige to retell the story of the college, and he has accordingly confined himself to incidental details, chiefly in connection with the general care bestowed upon Cambridge by the State. Thus, we meet in a foot note with "the Professor" whose son—

"I ord! how the seniors knocked about
The freshman class of one!"—

has been embalmed in Holmes's verse. Close upon the heels of the college came the "printing-house begun at Cambridge by one Daye," which afterwards became Samuel Green's, who printed Eliot's Indian Bible. During the eighteenth century Cambridge printers lost the virtual monopoly they had hitherto enjoyed, and the great presses which now distinguish the town have unfortunately no unbroken pedigree such as might have been the boast of a real university press. The very gradual amelioration of manners by such civilizing agencies as printing-houses and colleges is shown in the fact that as late as September 18, 1755, on the common opposite the college buildings, a negro woman who had helped poison her master in Charlestown was executed with her male accomplice. He was simply hung, but she, "an old creature," was burnt to death. Only slavery could have retained so long in Massachusetts law a punishment so barbarous as this for "petit treason." From persecutions for heresy and witchcraft Cambridge was comparatively free; but the hard experience of Benaniel Bower, her only Quaker, and the witchcraft case of Holman agst. Gibson, give great interest to Mr. Paige's narrative under this head.

The military history of Cambridge is not insignificant. Her militia took an active part in the Concord fight, and on her territory by far the greatest number of lives were lost on the eventful 19th of April. In material losses the town suffered damage to the extent of £1,202. Subsequently it became for eleven months the headquarters of the American army, and will be for ever associated with the name and fame of Washington. Cambridge gloried neither in the war of 1812 nor in the Mexican war, but in 1861 she enlisted the first militia company formed in view of the contingency of civil war, and ready to respond to the call for the defence of the Union. Like so many other places, great and small, Cambridge has its soldiers' monument, and Mr. Paige reproduces the more than four hundred names inscribed upon it. A goodly number of these we recognize as belonging to college men whose homes were elsewhere than in Cambridge, and we surmise, therefore, that some of them enjoy a double commemoration of this sort—which nobody certainly will grudge them.

Mr. Paige's laborious task has been executed with excellent tact and method, and with literary skill. The Genealogical Register at the end oc-

cupies 230 solid pages, and would alone entitle him to the lasting gratitude of his townsmen.

Oriental Records. Monumental. Confirmatory of the Old Testament Scriptures. By William Harris Rule, D.D. (London: Samuel Bagster & Sons; New York: John Wiley & Sons. 16mo, pp. iv. 247. 1877.)—It would be difficult to contrive a more vicious plan morally on which to construct a book than is that of the work before us. The author, who published some years ago a much larger volume of 'Biblical Monuments,' has now attempted a popular account of whatever the lately discovered monuments—especially Assyrian—contain in confirmation of the Old Testament history. For this purpose it is not too much to say that he has deliberately planned to set aside all honest critical judgment that he might have, and by fair means or foul to provide the desired confirmations. He is a man of considerable reading, and where he misrepresents the scholarship of the day it is not from ignorance. For example, Oppert, in the early days of Assyriology, imagined that he had discovered in an inscription of Nebuchadnezzar a reference to the story of the Confusion of Tongues: "since a remote time people had abandoned it, without order expressing their words." As Dr. Rule cannot but know, this translation was abandoned by Oppert many years ago, and in Prof. Rawlinson's 'Historical Illustrations of the Old Testament' no reference even is made to it. But Dr. Rule gives it in full without caveat, and supports it in a foot-note with the authority of Mr. Loftus, who, he must know, did nothing more than quote Oppert. So Sir Henry Rawlinson's early translation of Nebuchadnezzar's Grand Inscription is followed rather than any later one, where it was once made to contain an allusion to the king's lycanthropy, even though his brother's 'Historical Illustrations,' which Dr. Rule must have consulted on the subject, distinctly warns the reader against trusting it. For the same reason, will it be believed that Mr. Charles Förster's translations of Sinaitic inscriptions are accepted as really correct? The name Bab-Il, Dr. Rule says, "may possibly" be interpreted "Gate of God," when he must know that it can have no other meaning. The Assyrian myth of the Flood is given in full as an absolute confirmation of the historical character of the account of the Deluge in Genesis, although it is no less consistent with the theory that both are myths. "The authenticity of the Book of Daniel," he says, "is not at this day seriously called in question"—a really remarkable assertion. His arguments to prove that the vowels which we apply to the sacred tetragrammaton are correct are utterly puerile, but given with an air of semi-omniscience which confesses no ignorance except of the Amharic dialect. We should be tempted to apply the offensive word Jesuitical to the book and its author did we not recall the fact that he is the writer of a roaring Protestant 'History of the Inquisition.'

Seeking the Golden Fleece: a Record of Pioneer Life in California; to which is annexed Footprints of Early Navigators, other than Spanish, in California; with an account of the wreck of the schooner Dolphin. By J. D. B. Stillman. With plates. (San Francisco and New York: A. Roman & Co. 1877. 8vo, pp. 352.)—Mr. Stillman's book is made for the most part out of letters, journals, and memoranda written at the time of the first great emigration to California. He went out in 1849 by the way of Cape Horn, and returned the next year by the Isthmus. Without any high literary merit, his narrative contains a graphic and interesting account of the life of the time. Much less than half the space is devoted to California itself—only three chapters out of thirteen; and perhaps this is as well, for we have many accounts of pioneer life in California, while the hardships of the journey thither have very much passed out of memory. The swindling and brutality endured by these passengers are almost incredible. On both voyages—once at Rio Janeiro and again at New Providence—the passengers were forced to bring formal complaints against the captain; the first time they secured his removal; the second time Dr. Stillman chose to leave the vessel and make his way home by another route. The author's experience, it will be seen, embraced pretty much every phase of adventure, his profession of physician bringing him in contact with every class, and giving him peculiar opportunities of intercourse. He appears to have been a man of courage and energy, and tells his story with modesty and candor; and it is a story of considerable variety—embracing Arctic and tropical voyaging, a long land-journey across the Isthmus by the Nicaragua route, the rescue of the passengers of a wrecked vessel, a short sojourn on the island of New Providence, and a riot of the squatters at Sacramento, in the suppression of which he took part. On the whole the picture is a gloomy one, the discomforts and villainies described occupying a much larger share, at all events impressing the reader more forcibly, than the pleasant features of life.

* * Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Alden (W. L.), Domestic Explosives.....	(Lovell, Adam, Wesson & Co.)
Auerbach (R.), Poet and Merchant.....	Henry Holt & Co. \$1 25
Binney (J. A. P.), The Religion of Jesus compared with the Christianity of To-day.....	(F. W. Allen)
Caton (J. D.), Antelope and Deer.....	(Hurd & Houghton) 4 00
Cyr (N.), Recueil de Chants Chrétiens.....	(Poston) 35
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